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ABSTRACT

This document analyzes some of the aspects of the trend toward educational regionalism and cooperation. Educational cooperatives are designed to provide the flexibility and service associated with large districts while allowing for local control and school district autonomy. Types of educational cooperatives discussed include intermediate education districts, voluntary education agencies, school study councils, industry and education coordination, shared personnel arrangements, and centralized facilities. The legal arrangements necessary for educational cooperatives are explained and some examples of administrative organization under the various consortium programs are provided. (RA)

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FINAL REPORT

INTERPRETIVE STUDY OF RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT RELATIVE TO EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

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PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Interpretive Study of Educational Cooperatives is an analysis and synthesis of formal cooperative activities in education. Generalizations and interpretations are based upon data collected in several ways. Existing research on educational cooperatives was reviewed and analyzed; site visits were made to selected educational cooperatives; progress, annual and final reports requested from cooperative agencies and activities were reviewed; legislation pertaining to cooperation in education was requested from each state; and a questionnaire was used as a basis for interviews during site visits.

An advisory council helped provide direction to the study and supplied information about cooperative activities. The staff also contacted authorities in school district organization for assistance and direction.

Exemplary and representative cooperatives were identified. A structured interview form was developed for use during site visitations. Data retrieval systems were also used to obtain information. Project DIALOG of the Educational Reference Center (ERC), Division of Information Resources in the National Center for Educational Communication, Office of Education, was used as the method for obtaining information from the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC). Also, University Microfilms, at Ann Arbor, Michigan, performed a computer search through the DATRIX process to obtain relevant unpublished doctoral dissertations.

A number of other agencies contributed data to the study. Member colleges of education of University Council on Educational Administration were contacted through the Plenary Session representative and requested to provide information and/or materials on educational cooperation. The office of the National School Development Council was contacted as a data source for the study.

Each state education agency was requested to submit copies of state legislation relative to cooperative ventures within that state, and to identify cooperative programs in the state. Copies of the review and interpretation of the state's legislation concerning cooperative arrangements were returned to the state for review and clarification. Notices were sent to several professional journals; data were obtained in response to these notices.

Sites to be visited were determined by an unstructured reputational technique whereby identification of cooperatives was made through discussions between project staff and experts in the educational field. The Interpretive Study advisory committee assisted in identifying key cooperatives.

Types of educational cooperatives were classified to provide some logical access to and codification of data. It was impossible to obtain information about all educational cooperative activities that exist in the United States; the study was limited to cooperative activities with identifiable formal structures (such as a governing board) and some promise of "durableness"--not ad hoc or only occasional activities dependent totally upon short-range funding--but even these were so numerous that an exhaustive compilation was not feasible. It is presumed, however, that the study includes a reasonable representation of cooperative activities. A comprehensive bibliography was compiled.

Although one initial interest of the study was to obtain cost effectiveness data about cooperation, a review of the research and analysis of existing operations indicated that little cost effectiveness data were available. Perhaps the current emphasis by boards of education on accountability and cost effectiveness data will cause cooperative activities to initiate procedures for such studies. In the opinion of the investigators such an emphasis is needed.

The interpretive nature of this study encouraged the project staff to generate conclusions and to generalize from available data. Where there were recurring comments or emphases by personnel interviewed or in written reports, these ideas have been expressed as opinions or conjecture.

It seems logical to assume that development of more complex communication and transportation modes has encouraged the concurrent development of regional activities in education. Also, demands on school districts for more services for differing needs of pupils (special education, vocational education, diagnosis of learning disabilities, etc.) have encouraged development of larger units to provide services that single districts could not provide. Contemporaneously, the traditional emphasis on local control has mitigated against the wide-spread development of cooperation in education which might subsume some key local functions. Some opponents believe that cooperatives are another form of school consolidation and, therefore,attempts for development of cooperative activities are resisted. This study may offer some guidelines for determining if true educational cooperation is only a euphemism for school consolidation and whether or not cooperatives provide a structure for and access to expanded, improved, and equal educational opportunities.

The co-directors of the study extend their appreciation to the numerous persons who have contributed to its completion. Personnel from educational cooperatives that provided data and/or served as hosts for site visits are too numerous to mention individually. The United States Office of Education provided funding without which a study of this

magnitude could not have been undertaken. An interpretive study could hardly have been conducted without making use of prior research in the area of regional educational activities and educational cooperation. Researchers and theorists in educational cooperation and regionalism in education provided assistance for this study. Where their data are used, appropriate citations appear.

Special thanks is also due tht National School Development Council, the Tennessee Valley Authority, Appalachia Educational Laboratory, the Appalachian Regional Commission, and the Public Schools for Cooperative Research, a Tennessee-based school study council, for support and impetus given to this study.

Special mention must be made of some persons who have been extremely helpful. Dr. Robert Isenberg provided consultation and made his personal library available to the project staff. Dr. Eugene Hoyt, Dr. Benjamin Carmichael, and Dr. Charles Fitzwater provided consultation and guidance for the study. Two recent studies (1970) of school study councils by Dr. William Danenburg and Dr. John Babel were useful to the study of that form of cooperative effort in education. The advisory committee provided much assistance including direction in delimiting the study and in identifying a format for the final report. The members of this body were:

Dr. Gordon Foster, Director of the Florida School Desegregation Center, School of Education, University of Miami.

Dr. John J. Horvat, Assistant Dean of the School of Education, Indiana University.

Dr. Terry Eidell, Center for Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon.

Dr. Jack Culbertson, Executive Director, University Council for Educational Administration, Columbus, Ohio.

Dr. Wayne Myers, Educational Research Specialist, Division of Navigation Development and Regional Study, Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Dr. John Kohl, Associate Professor of Educational Administration and Executive Secretary of the National School Development Council, Pennsylvania State University.

Dr. Richard Goodman, Superintendent, Wellesley Public Schools, Massachusetts.

Dr. Edward Williams, Superintendent, Roane County Public Schools, Tennessee, representing the Public Schools for Cooperative Research.

Dr. Robin Farquhar, Deputy Director, University Council for Educational Administration, Columbus, Ohio.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION: AN INTERPRETATIVE STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

I. BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Societal changes and new demands upon educational systems require educators to consider and develop new ways of restructuring aspects of school organization to provide more effective and efficient educational programming. Many forces provide impetus for changes, but the problem remains--how best to organize to provide socially responsive systems to help insure quality education in a mass, technologically-oriented society.

The problem is complex. It is both urban and rural. The multiplicity of agencies in urban areas suggests the need for new larger structures for educational governance to provide greater coordination with other related community organizations. Yet, there is pressure for accountability, decentralization, and "local" control. Inadequate financing and insufficient pupil population are forcing rural school districts to organize to obtain or share services which singly they cannot provide; yet, again, there is pressure to remain independent and unique to a community.

Until recently, the predominantly used alternative to these problems has been consolidation. (1: 6) The intermediate school district and/or the educational cooperative are seen by many educators and citizens as an alternative solution and, in many instances, a superior solution to consolidation.(2: 3)

Recent and rapid changes in school organization and the variety of options and possible outcomes of reorganizing public education systems must be explained to school administrators, decision-makers, and laymen alike. The following quotation explains a major thrust of the present study:

> The years since 1945 constitute what is probably the most significant and certainly the most active period in our history in restructuring the administrative agencies of public school government. The rapid societal changes and expanding movement show no signs of slackening, and we can expect continued emphasis on strengthening the structures of our state systems of education. (3: 32)

The status of local school organization (1966) showed three basic organizational patterns within the states: a single-echelon system (state education agency (SEA) controls all); a two-echelon system (SEA and local education agency (LEA)); and a three-echelon system (SEA, an intermediate unit of some sort, and LEA). Only Hawaii had a single-echelon system; the two-echelon system prevailed in the following-listed 17 states, the majority of which are located in the Southeast; the three-echelon system existed in the remaining 32 states. (3: 17)

Idaho
New Mexico
Kentucky
Louisiana
Maryland
Georgia
Nevada
West Virginia
Tennessee
Connecticut
North Carolina
Florida
Utah
Virginia
Alaska
Delaware
Alabama

Although disparate studies have identified changes in school organization and administration, little has been done to codify or collate data from the various studies. This study focuses on "cooperation in education," a concept receiving considerable attention today with the more persistent reluctance of voters to support school bond issues and budgets. The move toward formal cooperation may be one move toward economic efficiency of school systems, as well as toward a sharing of information to help solve common problems.

The emergence of educational cooperatives, variously organized to serve diverse purposes, promises a response to problems and challenges of society. This interpretive study, primarily a study of educational development, examined in some depth data about educational cooperatives. Data about the nature and kind of cooperative endeavors, their organization, governance, finance, services, personnel, trends, and so on are presented and analyzed. There are many examples for each major classification of educational cooperation; this study highlights only a few, while reviewing and synthesizing many.

The rapid expansion and increase of the number and type of educational cooperatives indicate an implicit assumption by many educators and school boards that cooperative arrangements have the potential to improve educational practice. However, not all educational cooperatives are equally effective or have similar roles or functions; it may be possible to identify constraints upon cooperative activities.

The constancy of educational change can be seen in New York State, which pioneered one kind of educational cooperative in 1948 and was still reviewing legislation in 1967 which would:

> . . . replace the present arrangement with a statewide system of enlarged area centers of cooperative educational services whose boards would be empowered to construct facilities for area vocational schools and other programs and to provide broadly expanded service programs, including educational TV, part-time programs for out-of-school youth, adult education, experimental programs, and transportation for pupil participants in area center programs. Area center boards would also

> be empowered to enter into contract with community colleges, which are under the state system of higher education, or other public agencies in relation to its area of service programs. No program or service could be provided with a local school district which it could reasonably be expected to furnish. (3: 32)

There presently is a regional center network in New York that incorporates 16 geographic regions. (This is not the same as the 50 plus Boards of Cooperative Education Services (BOCES).) The regional network was initiated through impetus from Title III ESEA. (4: 15-16)

In recent years, numerous problems have become attached to school districts that seem too large and therefore unwieldy. A number of problems, familiar to most educators, beset small school districts. The Appalachian Regional Commission (ARC) has developed a regional strategy for alleviating problems in small rural school districts. Eugene Hoyt, Director of the ARC Educational Activities staff, has written of the problems and proposed some solutions:

> A common sense approach to a solution of some of these problems is to develop some kind of a device which will increase the size of the unit. . . . In nine Appalachian states mentioned in the study, comparable data show a reduction from 15,961 in 1945 to 3,266 districts in 1966. Many of these consolidations consisted of establishing a county system of administering schools and did not necessarily result in increasing individual school size.
>
> The Education Advisory Committee of the Appalachian Regional Commission has recommended that cooperation among school districts could help to solve the problems. Through Title IV, ESEA, the Appalachia Educational Laboratory at Charleston, West Virginia, is concentrating on the voluntary establishment of educational cooperatives. Many states have recognized this problem and have developed multi-district organizations to meet some or all of the problems resulting from small school size. Thirty-two states now have some form of the "intermediate district." These districts . . . range all the way from purely planning mechanisms to operation of specific programs. Many of these units are single county districts which only partly compensate for deficiencies caused by the size factor, while others are multi-county organizations and cover an area as large or larger than New England states. (5: 9)

Recently, there has been a revival and growth of school study councils throughout the United States. These organizations also provide services to local school districts that could not be accomplished by all of the participating districts singly. Councils are found throughout the United States; however, the largest concentration is in New York, Pennsylvania, and the Midwest. Interestingly, it can be noted that where new formal intermediate unit structures have been introduced by states, the prior existence of school study councils has appeared to enhance the success of these new units; that is, there was a good climate for cooperative endeavors created by the school study council.

Other voluntary arrangements between local school systems, such as the Educational Research and Development Councils in Minnesota and the Cooperating School Districts of the St. Louis suburban area, have emerged to fill a vacuum that existed where no formal state middle-echelon agency provided needed services.

Besides "voluntary" cooperation, there has been an increase in the number of states that have developed the second of a three-echelon educational system or have redefined and refined the existing middle-echelon regional educational agency or intermediate unit.

There now exist several models of industry-education cooperation that have formal boards of control, structure, and well-defined purposes and goals.

Likewise, as urban school systems decentralize to provide local administrative units, the central administration mirrors many characteristics of educational cooperatives or regional education agencies.

II. DEFINITIONS OF EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES AND STUDY PARAMETERS

Many definitions of educational cooperatives or regional education agencies have appeared in publications or have been offered by experts; some would suffice as an operational definition of educational cooperation. A definition should be broad enough to include all the kinds of educational cooperation included in this study, as well as many cooperative arrangements outside the scope of this study. However, no single definition is appropriate: what is necessary is the understanding of a concept. Thus, there follow some general statements designed to give the reader the "flavor" of the idea of an educational cooperative.

1. A cooperative is a consumer's organization started by consumers and not mandated from above; it is a participatory organization.

2. An educational cooperative is a joint effort of two or more educational organizations which has as its purpose change and innovation in education and to enlarge the scope, quality, and accessibility of programs and services in education.

3. An educational cooperative is built upon an exchange system; it is a voluntary, mutually rewarding system.

4. An educational cooperative allows each of the districts to

remain independent, is permissive in its operation, works toward comprehensive change, provides a cost effectiveness ratio somewhat lower than an individual district would have if it were working alone, and is primarily interested in developmental aspects of education and programs.

5. In a voluntary educational cooperative, employees are not full-time members of a standard political unit such as the local school unit.

6. One goal of a cooperative is to provide clients access to certain features of quality education through the pooling and extending of resources. An educational cooperative is generally thought of as a system within a defined region containing a number of contiguous (although not necessarily so) independent school districts which develop and share educational resources through the use of such things as communications media, mobile facilities, joint research and development activities, and computer and data processing technology.

7. The educational cooperative, a multi-district confederation, provides the conceptual and organizational framework for local school systems to increase their capabilities to produce quality education. . . . (It) provides structure for the joint solution of inter-district and inter-state educational problems. It also promotes widespread dialogue among professional educators and the wider intellectual community. . . . The educational cooperative is a confederation of autonomous school systems whereby each retains local control . . . (and) is not merely a service center or service unit. It is a process which integrates cooperating schools as its components. . . . (It) is not a consolidation of a few . . . school districts, but a creation of them. (6: 3, 11, 18, 19)

Attention is directed to the inclusion of innovation or to the inclusion of the structure for innovation and change as a major component of an educational cooperative.

Figure 1 provides a detailed definition of an educational cooperative as set forth by the Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL), Charleston, West Virginia, an agency which has been actively promoting educational cooperatives throughout Appalachia. This definition, while satisfactory for cooperatives comprised wholly of school or educational systems, does not specifically include other organizations such as businesses, industry, financial sources and foundations, or service agencies.

Specialized kinds of educational cooperation were identified during this study. When the scope of these cooperatives was reviewed, the project advisory committee and project staff were forced to limit areas of concern of the study. Omitted from the study (and probably material for a separate study) are educational cooperatives between or

WHAT IS IT?

The Educational Cooperative is a new system of education engineered to increase access to educational opportunity and to improve the quality of education. The Educational Cooperative can be a federation of small and medium sized school districts, or it can be a decentralized system of education for metropolitan areas such as New York and Chicago. In either case, a high degree of local participation is retained; a higher degree of equality in educational opportunity can be achieved; and advanced educational practices can be introduced and sustained. The Educational Cooperative gives central consideration to the locus of change as well as the inventions of change.

Through the Educational Cooperative system of education all school districts can operate under maximum economic conditions, effect better utilization of staff, and improve the cost effectiveness of education. This system can enable education to overcome problems of deprivation, effect higher degrees of individualized instruction, overcome problems of distance and time, and deal more effectively with the knowledge explosion. It is a system designed to effect the regeneration of curriculum development as opposed to add-on curriculum development.

HOW DOES IT WORK?

The Educational Cooperative is not a superstructure imposed upon existing school systems; it emerges as a creation of them. Small contiguous school systems join together to greate the capacity to perform educational operations that cannot be implemented in the present structure. Giant school systems can decentralize into local autonomous units but retain the advantages of the large district. A new administrative structure is established providing for both local autonomy and multi-district coordination and operation. A new integrated system of instruction is effected through the use of mass and individualized communications media and mobile facilities. A system of planning and evaluation is implemented. An operations system of communications is established, and new administrative practices are introduced incorporating legal and financial requirements, new staff utilization patterns, and new staff training procedures. State departments of education and colleges and universities participate with the local schools in responsible roles in the planning and execution of these functions.

New approaches to instruction are required for the operation of the Cooperatives system . . .

Source: 7: Excerpts.

Figure 1. The Educational Cooperatives.

among institutions of higher education. Also omitted are specialized vocational or junior college districts, ad hoc projects funded under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), and organizations which have the federal government as the sole funding sources, such as the educational laboratories or research and development centers.

Vocational schools and districts are more "local" organizations even though they may serve several districts and are not really cooperatives in the true sense; pupils are sent to them on a tuition basis or some other way.

The most important criteria for inclusion in the study were that the cooperative must have a definable board of control and/or formal organizational structure and include an educational organization in the combination. The third most important criterion was that constituent organizations make some contribution to the cooperative's operation. Fourth, the cooperative must have some history of existence or promise of continued existence not dependent totally on federal funding.

III. KINDS OF COOPERATIVES IN THE STUDY

Diverse kinds of cooperative arrangements exist in education. Some cooperatives are well-known and exist to provide for an extension of the "regular" education program--special vocational and technical school districts, junior or community college districts. Other arrangements are totally federally funded and supported for specific purposes--Title V ESEA special projects, and Title IV ESEA educational laboratories and research and development centers. Title III projects and centers are supported with federal funds through a state grant program; institutions of higher education have enough different kinds of cooperative arrangements to justify a separate study.

This study focuses upon educational cooperative arrangements that primarily influence elementary and secondary education and that have some emergent or special functions. These educational cooperatives, multidistrict units, or regional educational agencies (REA) have been grouped in the following categories for purposes of presentation: intermediate educational service agencies, voluntary education cooperatives, school study or development councils, and school-industry cooperatives.

Intermediate Educational Service Agencies (Units)

Intermediate educational service agencies, or the second of a three-echelon formal educational structure, have existed for many years. A 1966 study entitled "The Flexible Intermediate Unit in California" (8) reviewed several questions pertinent to the current study. One major question was: "What is the existing structure of the intermediate unit in the 50 states, including the major reorganizational changes that have taken place in such structures during the period from 1945 to 1965?" The study, in analyzing intermediate units and cooperative arrangements prior to 1965, divides the states into three categories: (1) states with no intermediate unit or where no intermediate unit has ever existed; (2) states which have an intermediate unit, including the county office of education, the supervisory union, and the new intermediate unit or cooperative; and (3) states which are studying the intermediate unit structure.

The following provides a summary of the status of the intermediate unit (one form of educational cooperative) in 1965.

> States with no intermediate unit. Nineteen states--Alabama, Alaska, Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Idaho, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia--had no form of intermediate educational agency in 1965.
>
> States with county unit systems. Although the states under this classification had no intermediate units, some of the states had county superintendents of schools. The county superintendent, in these cases, had full administrative responsibility over county-wide school districts. This arrangement is known as the county unit system and it must be carefully distinguished from the county intermediate unit system where the county superintendent fills an intermediate role . . .
>
> In 1965 four states had all territory located in county-wide school districts. These states were: Florida, New Mexico, Nevada, and West Virginia . . .
>
> States with some or all county unit systems were: Alabama, California, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia.
>
> States with intermediate units. The intermediate unit systems described in this section include the county office of education, the supervisory union, and the new form of intermediate unit. These intermediate units are located between the state office of education and the local school district for the purpose of performing various functions deemed necessary in a state system of public education. (8: 15-16)
>
> Twenty-four states maintained a county intermediate unit system in 1965, including: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Washington, and Wyoming. (8: 17)

> Major changes were taking place in at least six of these states in 1965. Colorado, Iowa, Nebraska, and Washington were in the process of forming a new type of intermediate unit . . . Missouri, Minnesota, and Wyoming were simply abolishing the county office. (8: 17)
>
> The supervisory union. One form of the intermediate unit is found in the New England states where school districts usually coincide with towns and cities. In situations where the towns are too small to have their own superintendent, several towns join together and employ a common administrator to provide supervision over the schools. This is described as a supervisory union . . . Through the supervisory union, rural districts and small communities are able to join together to obtain professional services that are available to larger urban districts. Connecticut, Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont were listed in the Education Directory as having supervisory unions. (8: 18-19)
>
> The new intermediate unit. The new form of intermediate unit, ideally, would have an elected governing board of education, a professional administrative officer appointed by the governing board, adequate state and local financing, a service area large enough in enrollment to justify a comprehensive program of services for local school districts, and generally serve at the request of local educational agencies.
>
> New York was one of the first states to develop a form of intermediate unit in 1948 when the Board of Cooperative Educational Services came into existence. Since 1955 six other states have enacted legislation making it possible to establish newer forms of intermediate units. The states were: Colorado, Iowa, Michigan, Nebraska, Washington, and Wisconsin. (8: 19)

Since the writing of this study (1966), two more states have formally developed newer types of intermediate units--Texas (Regional Educational Service Agency) and Pennsylvania (Intermediate Unit).

Iowa, Texas, New York, and Wisconsin are discussed in detail in the chapter on intermediate educational service agencies. The Michigan system of intermediate school systems is composed of some single county and some multi-county areas. Sixty-one intermediate units existed in 1966 with thirteen having two or more counties. In California, the intermediate unit between the state and local levels is administered by the county superintendent of schools. California's constitution allows two or more counties to elect a common superintendent (none of the 50 intermediate units have done so), but it is not possible for two or more counties to elect a common board. The major form of cooperative activities is in the area of cooperative curriculum publications. The 1969 Pennsylvania Legislature mandated the establishment of 29 multi-county Intermediate Units which take over the functions of the county superintendency by July, 1971. Oregon currently has 29 Intermediate Educational Districts serving 30 of the state's 36 counties. Only one of the intermediate units includes two counties. The Legislature in Oregon proposed the formation of 14 enlarged regional service units, but at the May, 1970, primary election approval by the voters of a constitutional amendment allowing this reorganization failed. Since it is possible under existing Oregon law for intermediate units to merge, there is a strong possibility of voluntary merging of the existing intermediate units.

The 1965 Washington Legislature called for a total reorganization of the county school office into a system of intermediate units for its 39 counties. The Washington State Board of Education adopted a plan for 15 intermediate districts. These districts become operational upon the approval of the county boards of education. Some problems have developed in their adoption of these districts due to the objection of certain counties, especially in sparsely populated areas. Probably one of the major developments in multi-county intermediate formation has occurred in Washington. A legal "test case" contesting the board of control representation which limited board membership to one per school district on the "one man, one vote" principle was filed by Seattle. The court agreed that the distribution of representation was unconstitutional and suggested that the 1971 Legislature solve this problem.

In 1965, the Colorado Legislature enacted permissive legislation for the abolishment of the county superintendency by referendum and enabling legislation for the formation of Boards of Cooperative Services. Currently, 151 of the approximately 180 counties are involved in the Boards of Cooperative Services. The Nebraska Legislature created 19 multi-county Educational Service Units. Subsequently, the number of Educational Service units has been reduced to 17 and the permissive ability of counties to vote on exclusion after voting to participate has been withdrawn.

Other states are discussing the possible formation of regional intermediate organizations. The 1965 Ohio Legislature mandated the state board of education to prepare a master plan for reorganization of the school districts in the state, which has been submitted to the General Assembly. Legislation was introduced in the 1970 Ohio Legislature for the creation of less than 40 educational resource centers, but the Bill never reached the floor for consideration. However, multi-district cooperative arrangements are possible due to the State Auditor's interpretation of legislation. The 1969 Illinois Legislature changed the name of the elected county superintendent to the Superintendent of the Educational Service Region. By August, 1971, it will be permissive for two or more counties to join together, but by August, 1973, any region with a population of fewer than 16,000 will be required to merge. By August, 1977, any region with fewer than 33,000 population will be required to join unless three counties join and fail to meet the 33,000 population limit. The Division of Planning and Development of the Minnesota State Department of Education has recommended the establishment of eleven Educational Service Areas which would be coterminous with the Economic Planning Agencies of the State. In 1968, the North Carolina Governor's Study Commission on the Public School System of North Carolina proposed the establishment of 8 Regional Education Service Centers. Currently, two planning grants have been approved by the Appalachian Regional Commission to establish multi-county agency service centers in the northwest and far west sections of North Carolina. Legislation is expected to be introduced in the 1971 North Carolina General Assembly to establish a series of service centers.

Voluntary Educational Cooperatives

Voluntary educational cooperatives are those cooperative educational arrangements that are in no way mandated by legislation or regulation. (The general concept of voluntary educational cooperatives includes the school study or development councils and school-industry cooperatives. Both, however, are treated as separate categories due to their unique functions and structures.) Excluding the study councils, voluntary educational cooperatives generally have a short history of development and are considerably more flexible than older organizations in education; many of these are emerging organizations formed through a "grass roots" local concern.

Voluntary educational cooperatives generally try to coordinate or harness the strengths and capabilities of the constituents to develop or generate a structure to provide flexibility, power, potential and direction for change and innovation. Voluntary cooperatives often include expanded "mixes" of groups or agencies, such as combinations of local schools, higher education, Title III centers, regional educational laboratories, state education agencies, and other social or community agencies. A well-developed voluntary cooperative protects the autonomy or local control of the basic local unit while providing the benefits of a complex agency. The voluntary educational cooperative stands as an innovative approach to school district organization, and according to a working draft of the Appalachia Educational Laboratory, has the potential to provide:

1. An improved design for the provision of leadership services by state departments of education, institutions of higher education, research and development centers, and other agencies and institutions;
2. A reshaping of the roles and responsibilities of lay school boards and of professional school administrators;
3. Improved ways of introducing and sustaining new practices and research findings in education;

4. A vehicle for modernizing the curriculum, including ways of building receptivity to innovation, providing expertise for implementing new approaches to education, and insuring continuous evaluation of the effectiveness of the curriculum;

5. An economical and efficient plan for providing specialized services too expensive for individual school districts. (6: preface)

There presently is concerted action toward the development of voluntary cooperatives in some Appalachian states (Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, and to a lesser degree, Northern Georgia and Alabama) under the auspices of the Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL) and the Appalachian Regional Commission (ARC) with the assistance of other agencies. The Educational Research and Development Councils of Minnesota provide another kind of voluntary cooperative.

School Study or Development Councils

School study councils were initiated in 1942 based upon the late Paul Mort's concept of "pool and share." Although there have been slow periods in the growth of the study council movement, it has been continuous and 1970 saw the development of at least 10 new councils.

A school study council (also often called school development council) is a group of local school systems loosely confederated, usually under the sponsorship of a college of education, organized for the purpose of solving defined educational problems existing in member schools. Although different in organization from other educational cooperatives, it is formed for many of the same purposes; i.e., it aims to accomplish through shared resources that which could not efficiently be accomplished singly. Major differences seem to lie in the nature and kind of services which are shared and in the unique role played by institutions of higher education with member schools.

In 1969, the National School Development Council (NSDC), incorporated under the laws of Massachusetts, was formed to provide a central office for study and development councils. The NSCD lists 80 active study councils in 1970.

Study councils, although primarily centered in the Northeast, have spread throughout the United States and are located in 31 states, from Washington and Texas to Florida and Massachusetts. One of the largest study councils, the New England School Development Council, spans six states and has over 250 member school districts.

Dissemination and information sharing are major inter-council activities. Many councils share their publications and research results at no cost. This activity provides a network for channeling ideas from all over the United States into local schools.

Study councils have often provided the base for development of other cooperative activity, including more structured and formal cooperative arrangements. They have sometimes co-opted the Title III functions for a region.

School-Industry or Industry-Education Cooperation

Another phenomenon in the development of educational cooperatives is the industry-education cooperative. Most of the industry-education cooperatives--industry to school(s)--are found in urban areas with populations of 500,000 or more, usually working with schools with heavy concentration of urban poverty. Industry-Education Councils, usually operating on a regional basis, are scattered throughout the nation. Prominent industry-education or business-education councils are found in Massachusetts, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Ohio, Iowa, Oregon, and California.

It is difficult to identify specific areas where industry-education cooperatives are emerging or proliferating. Generally, the more heavily industrialized states are taking the lead, and problems of urban poverty and heavy environmental pollution seem to be prominent as criteria for identifying such emerging areas.

A major force in the development of industry-education cooperation is the Education Research Council (ERC) of America, located in Cleveland, Ohio.

The industry-education cooperative is a different organization and concept from the emerging "education-business partnership" where business profit is a major goal, although both arrangements may be working directly for the improvement of education.

Other Cooperative Arrangements

Some special-purpose cooperatives and some cooperatives that combine elements of other classifications of cooperatives fall into this category. Regional Instructional Materials Centers (in Pennsylvania, for example) derive funds both from member districts and from federal sources. The primary purpose of the RIMC is to provide increased media services and materials to member schools. Other special-purpose cooperatives can be identified that have specific and quite limited purposes such as: computer assistance or television network services to member districts.

In some cases school study councils have either become the focus of Title III ESEA activity (for example, the Genesee Valley School Development Association and the Western New York School Development Council) or the Title III activity has basically taken over the functions of the study council or the cooperative, as is the case in some places in Texas, where the Texas Regional Education Centers have blanketed the state.

Since both the single-purpose and the mixed-funding cooperatives are expanding their operations, they are included in the body of the study under the major cooperative classification that they most closely resemble.

General Classification of Cooperatives

In those states which have a three-echelon administrative organization or contain educational cooperatives, there are a variety of frequently overlapping or synonymous names used to describe the cooperatives or the second-echelon. The literature reports such descriptive terms as board of cooperative educational services, educational service agency, regional educational service agency, cooperative educational service agency, intermediate district, regional service agency, educational cooperative, educational research and development council, school study council, etc. Many of these common names have dissimilar functions from state to state.

Isenberg (9: 61) suggests a rationale for classifying these organizations through the degree of completeness of perfection each has as an autonomous public corporation. Local school districts themselves are differentiated by a variety of legal names, yet are very similar when viewed from the standpoint of corporate organization; all are established and function under the provisions of state law. Thus, as public corporations, local public school districts tend to have common legal characteristics. As public corporations, they are reasonably complete; within the framework of state law, they are highly autonomous. The rationale suggested for analyzing multi-district organizations--whether at the state, regional, or local level--is the degree of completeness or purity as an autonomous public corporation. Isenberg has suggested that public agencies can be identified within the following continuum:

Public Corporation → Public corporation with line functions → Public corporation without line functions → Non-profit corporation or confederation

This continuum ranges from the most complete agency as an autonomous public corporation (such as the intermediate school district of Oakland Schools, Pontiac, Michigan) to a regional non-profit corporation (such as an Educational Research and Development Council of Minnesota which is created by its member districts to perform designated regional education programs or functions, and which operates outside the regular legal framework of the state system of schools).

Hoyt (5: 26) and Isenberg (9) suggest that any plan to organize, develop or identify regional service agencies or a statewide or nationwide network of such agencies have available for consideration a substantial number of optional arrangements. Four broad area characteristics of public educational cooperatives provide a reasonable basis for describing possibilities. These are the board of control or governing board; the responsibilities and opportunities of the board; the financial arrangements; and the required and permissive features of the program of services operated. The following figure shows some types of cooperative arrangements and some of the characteristics in each of these four areas.

IV. FEDERAL INTEREST IN COOPERATION: LEGISLATION

Higher Education Act

In a discussion of educational cooperation, the year 1965 is a logical dividing point between basically sub rosa activity and open implementation of cooperative activity. In 1965 the federal government encouraged educational cooperation through several important pieces of legislation. The Higher Education Act (PL 89-329) encouraged cooperation between higher education and community agencies through Title I, Community Service and Continuing Education, by requiring institutions of higher education to work closely with, and make their resources available to, communities for the solution of community problems.

Title III provided assistance to strengthen developing higher education institutions in several ways: (1) cooperation between a cooperating institution and a developing institution (bilateral); (2) consortia of developing institutions to work on common or similar problems; (3) connection of a cooperating institution with a consortium of developing institutions; and (4) other arrangements (e.g., "hidden" bilateral).

Elementary and Secondary Education Act

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) PL 89-10 and its amendments probably did most to encourage educational cooperation. All five original titles encouraged, or at least did not discourage, cooperation. As ESEA evolved, several programs required interagency or regional planning as a condition for funding. Title I provides funds for the improvement of education for disadvantaged youth through the utilization of a wide variety of non-school social agencies and programs. Also, the guidelines for Title I (as amended) indicate that a school system may apply

REGIONAL EDUCATION AGENCIES*

Autonomous → Semi-autonomous → Dependent			
Public Corporation →	With Line Function →	Without Line Function →	Non-Profit Corporation or Confederation
TYPE: I	II	III	IV**
EXAMPLES:			
Michigan: Intermediate Unit Muscatine-Scott County School System (Iowa)	New York: BOCES Pennsylvania: Intermediate Unit	Texas: Regional Education Service Centers Oregon: (IED) Intermediate Education District	Educational Research and Development Councils of Minnesota Study Councils School-Industry Voluntary Cooperatives

*All arrangements are multi-district; some are single county and some are multi-county.

**These units are not technically a second-echelon of a three echelon system since they are creations of the local districts and, thus, below the local districts in the hierarchy of organization. In fact, however, they sometimes act between the state and local agencies.

Figure 2. Classification Scheme for Cooperative Types

for a grant up to one percent of its entitlement, or $2,000, whichever amount is greater, for planning purposes relative to expanded, more effective, or more efficient use of Title I funds. (10: 2745) A number of districts could join and pool these planning funds to obtain consultant aid or a full-time planner to effect regional planning for Title I. (11)

Title III, PACE (Programs to Advance Creativity in Education), was particularly aimed at educational innovation and supplementary educational centers. Most PACE projects encourage (or demand) cooperation between and among agencies with a view toward the improvement of education. As the funding of Title III has changed from the federal to the state level, some states have used Title III for statewide regional development to promote planning and educational cooperation for the utilization of Title III funds (e.g., Kentucky).

Title IV of ESEA provides, among other things, for the development of regional educational laboratories originally conceived to serve a regional need and foster a kind of educational cooperation.

Title V of ESEA also encourages cooperation. Section 507 provides for the interchange of personnel between the U. S. Office of Education and the state education agency and other state public organizations in education. Section 505 encourages multi-state cooperation for the identification and solution of common problems. To date, 31 Section 505 projects are operating or have been operated. (12: 61-63) These Title V projects have shown that states can cooperate for improvement of education.

Title V has also provided that 10 percent of State Title V funds be allocated to local districts to encourage local and multi-district educational planning and to assist with administrative activity. Some states have suggested in their guidelines for the administration of this section that priority be given for funding to districts that have formed cooperative arrangements or that are planning to work cooperatively. It would have been possible under Title V for a state to make funds available for the development and administration of regional education agencies.

The ESEA's recognition and influence in strengthening cooperative programs between school districts is especially evident in the definition of an eligible "local educational agency" under Titles II, III, and V. After careful consideration, the Senate Committee on Labor and Public Welfare modified their original definition which was accepted by the House of Representatives to broaden or clarify the inclusion of cooperative organizations. The modified definition found in Section 601, (f) Title VI, of PL 89-10 reads as follows:

> The term "local educational agency" means a public board of education or other public authority legally constituted within a State for either administrative control and direction of, or

> to perform a service function for, public elementary and secondary schools in a city, county, township, school district, or other political subdivision of a State, or such combination of school districts or counties as are recognized in a State as an administrative agency for its public elementary and secondary schools. Such term also includes any other public institution or agency having administrative control and direction of a public elementary or secondary school. (emphasis added)

The concepts of agencies which "perform a service function for" and the inclusion of "such combination of school districts or counties as are recognized" should be emphasized because of the thrust they gave to cooperative endeavors.

Other Federal Legislation

The federal government also provides for cooperation between education and other agencies in the Model Cities Program, in the development of area vocational and technical schools, and in the development of regional academic and/or development districts under various acts, such as the Appalachian Redevelopment Act, for example.

V. ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The remainder of this report presents more detail on major topics of the study relative to educational cooperation and regional educational agencies. Major divisions of the report deal with: Intermediate Educational Agencies (multi-district educational organizations spanning single or multi-county jurisdiction); Voluntary Cooperatives; School Study or Development Councils; Industry-Education Cooperation; Legal Provisions; Personnel; Facilities: Summary, Trends, and Major Conclusions, and various attachments. References are given at the conclusion of each chapter. A major bibliography on cooperation and cooperatives in education has been prepared as a separate document.

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CHAPTER II

INTERMEDIATE EDUCATIONAL SERVICE AGENCIES

I. INTRODUCTION

Education in the United States is a function of the state. However, this function has been delegated to local education agencies in all states except Hawaii where the state and local education agency are the same. Historically, other formal state-sanctioned agencies have been established in many states between the local and state agency for a variety of educational purposes. Isenberg observed that "three functional aspects of educational operation exist in nearly every state--the state, the basic or community unit, and, between them, an intermediate unit. The specific duties of the functional divisions vary from state to state." (1:27)

II. TYPES OF INTERMEDIATE AGENCIES

Fitzwater identified three types of intermediate administrative districts representative of the 32 states currently having a three-echelon structure for school administration. These are: (1) supervisory unions; (2) county intermediate districts or the county superintendency as frequently termed in many states; and (3) multi-county or regional intermediate districts. (2:32)

Supervisory Unions

Supervisory unions, found in the New England states, are usually composed of two or more town school districts grouped to share the services of a superintendent. (2:32) Knezevich states that a supervisory union is a collection of federations of towns which serves as the basic administrative unit for school purposes. (3:143)

County Intermediate District

The following represent definitions of the intermediate unit found in the literature:

> 1) . . .an intermediate unit is an administrative organization established to function between the state department and the local school districts. It serves both the state department and local districts directly. The area always includes two or more local districts. (4:4)

2) . . .an intermediate unit of school administration is an area comprising the territory of two or more basic administrative units and having a board, or officers, or both responsible for performing stipulated services for the basic administrative units or for supervising their fiscal, administrative, or educational functions. (5:52)

3) Administrative unit, intermediate: a unit smaller than the state which exists primarily to provide consultative, advisory, or statistical services to local basic administrative units or to exercise certain regulatory and inspectorial functions over local basic administrative units. An intermediate unit may operate schools and contract for school services, but it does not exist primarily to render such services. Such units may or may not have taxing or bonding authority. (6:2)

4) The intermediate unit is the middle echelon of a state system of schools made up of a state education office, numerous local school districts, and less numerous intermediate school districts. (7)

5) The intermediate unit is that echelon of a three-echelon state education system (school district, intermediate unit, state education department) which provides consultative, advisory, or education program services to school districts. The responsibility for administration, supervision, and program operation belongs to school districts. The intermediate unit provides ancillary services necessary to improve the state system of education. (8:2)

The title "County Superintendent of Schools" is not synonymous with the intermediate school district. Many states have county unit systems where the county superintendent has full administrative responsibility over a county-wide school district or that portion of the county which does not have separate system(s), usually located in the cities. In some cases, the county district and the county intermediate unit can be found in the same state.

Early laws regarding local school districts were mainly permissive in allowing citizens to form school districts and levying taxes to support them. This, coupled with the desire to keep administration close to the people, produced thousands of small districts. (9:49) With the establishment of many small local school districts (frequently one-room, one-school districts) within the states, legislatures saw the need for providing communication and developing uniform regulation and administration functions. Logically, the county unit was developed after the existing pattern in England and adopted in the United States. (10:43) For Pennsylvania, it has been suggested that the typical state-county-local relationship developed because of the following conditions:

(1) the existence of small school districts and the need to decentralize the administration of these districts from the state to some middle agency; (2) the difficulty in communicating a state educational policy because of poor roads, lack of mass transportation facilities, and underdeveloped rapid communication devices; and (3) the lack of well-qualified teachers and administrators to implement state education policy. (10:1)

Therefore, "intermediate units, as traditionally constituted, are creatures of another age. They or their predecessors, the office of the county superintendents of schools, were created to assist state education officials in operating a system of schools primarily concerned with elementary instruction." (11:28)

The viewpoint that the intermediate units are, therefore, a downward extension of the state department of public instruction was emphasized by Gregg and Watson when they said:

> Intermediate units should have responsibility to both the constituent local school district and the state department of public instruction. The basic orientation of the intermediate unit, however, should be that of helper rather than master. (12:308)

It must be reemphasized that the intermediate unit in its original context was primarily in the form of the county superintendency. However, this role and function is rapidly diminishing and the intermediate unit in its newly emerging form is a product of efforts to meet new demands in education. Its benefits have been demonstrated and its potential recognized. However, it must undergo still greater development and utilization to meet the pressures being placed upon the schools for better educational opportunities at reasonable cost. (13:4-13)

Reorganization. Fitzwater points to the massive population change due to rural migration and increasing urbanization along with school district reorganization in direct opposition to the importance to the people in the establishment of a sound local school district structure as the major issues confronting the problem of the formation of effective intermediate units of administration. (2:7-11)

Although since 1945 only six states have not had changes in their local school district organization, redistricting problems are still widespread. One basic problem seems to be with school districts that are too small to operate effective and efficient programs. By 1967 only nine states had no school districts with less than 300 pupils. Also, only eight states offer statewide unified school districts (districts having both elementary and secondary systems). Thirteen states have less than 50 percent of their local school districts operating a 12-grade unit. Part of this problem of redistricting has been the tendency for local school systems to consider optimum operating standards to be equivalent with the state legislature's or state school board's minimum operating standards. (2:11-16) While it is true that local district reorganization has been extensive in many states, the task is far from being complete. Problems of proliferation of school districts and extremes in size of student enrollment persist. These problems are not solely related to the more rural areas; probably the most complex and difficult problems can be found in the metropolitan areas. All areas of planning due to the suburban sprawl constitute a challenge to local, state and federal agencies.

The tendency toward decentralization in the large cities to make the schools more responsive to distinctive needs of localities within the cities is seen as another form of school district reorganization which may be considered similar to the establishment of intermediate units. In essence, the district superintendent and his staff function more and more as a service agency for the decentralized school districts. (2:16-19)

Reorganization and consolidation have had an impact on the intermediate unit. McHenry described this effect when he stated:

> Whereas the intermediate district superintendent and his staff formally have a responsibility to provide leadership and service to a multitude of small districts in most cases, they suddenly found themselves dealing with a relatively small number of larger and more efficiently organized basic administrative units. Some of the services previously provided at the intermediate level could now be performed by the local district, thus bringing about an upward evolution of the intermediate unit which had to adopt new methods and offer expended services in order to continue to function in the role for which it was originally created. (14)

Originally, the county superintendency was established to aid in providing services to the predominantly rural counties typically concerned with one-room schools. However, it soon became apparent that the county superintendent, who frequently was elected by popular vote and had the same legal status as the county sheriff or tax assessor, was unable to provide the leadership and services necessary. The states, therefore, have reacted in some of the following ways;

1) Abolishment of all intermediate units.

2) Elimination of part of the county intermediate district without provision for replacement by another type.

3) Continuation of the existing pattern without any basic strengthening of it.

4) Strengthening the existing structure without enlarging its component units.

5) Establishing enlarged intermediate districts. (2:33-36)

McLure studied changes in the function of the intermediate unit that occurred after reorganization of local districts. Sixty intermediate office duties were classified into groups including: (1) supervision; (2) business administration; (3) clerical and statistical; (4) district reorganization; (5) communication, and (6) interpretation of education. County intermediate unit and local superintendents were interviewed.

McLure did not evaluate the quality of performance of these tasks. His classification was administratively task-oriented and did not include programs and recently advocated service functions.

The following conclusions were reported:

1) There was a reduced amount of work described as supervision of instruction. Duties requiring increased amounts of work were new types of services which did not exist in large measure prior to reorganization.

2) There was little change in the volume of work of a business nature.

3) A decrease in the volume of clerical and statistical work occurred. This was attributed to consolidation of data and greater accuracy.

4) An increase of communication with the local schools and the public occurred. Interpretation to the public was a major communication function. (15:33-36)

Van Miller has questioned the need for a middle-echelon educational agency. He advocated its abolishment, contingent upon drastic reduction of local school districts through reorganization. The intermediate unit could then be abolished because the larger local districts could absorb the same functions as the middle-echelon agency. Any need still existing could be undertaken through the branch office of the state education agency. (16:138-139)

Several alternatives to the intermediate unit have been suggested. One of the earliest was centralization of administration at the county level (which has resulted in the development of county unit districts in many states). It has been argued that the county unit would not properly take into account the promotion of local control, local participation, and local initiative. Others have simply proposed mandated local combinations with no less than 10,000 or 12,000 pupils.

Another suggestion has been the formation of cooperative agreements among small local districts which would allow for the formation of a single purpose center, consortia, or simply small districts contracting with neighboring districts for specific services. However, the question has been raised as to whether such cooperative plans would be fostered without professional vision and encouragement frequently found in small local districts.

A third alternative has been decentralization of state departments of education or the establishment of a number of regional offices throughout the state to provide consultant services and furnish well-trained specialized personnel in instruction, guidance, and other areas. There have been serious objections to this approach due to fears of increased state control, encroachment on local control, and state education officials failing to meet local needs. (11: 86-89)

After an extensive review, the Iowa Center for Research in School Administration concluded that the education intermediate unit was truly on trial. It was suggested that the role and function of the intermediate agency have not been clearly conceptualized and defined in many states. It was reported that most authorities emphasized that the traditional intermediate unit must be restructured, revitalized, and expanded in programs and services if it is to perform a worthwhile function in public education. This study noted that many authorities believed that the intermediate unit did indeed have a future in American education. However, to be successful, the traditional county intermediate agency must be revitalized and must undergo widespread restructuring and reorganization. The study suggested that the regional approach provides the only solution to the intermediate agency's structural problems. County lines would no longer be sacred; regional education service agencies would be formed using combinations of counties or by disregarding county boundaries and organizing large areas into a service agency. (11: 91-97)

Multi-County or Regional Intermediate Districts

Although many definitions of the intermediate unit can be found in the literature, the intermediate unit is usually defined as some type of educational unit operating between local districts and the state education agency. These definitions do not discriminate between the county unit and the emerging regional concept.

The National Education Association emphasizes this regionalism in its definition of intermediate units:

> The intermediate unit of school administration is an agency that operates at a regional level giving coordination and supplementary services to local school districts and serving as a link between the basic administrative units and state education authority. (13: 3-4)

Knezevich says that the intermediate unit is structurally a confederation of local school districts, and it may or may not be coterminous with such political boundaries as city or county lines. (3:142)

Campbell, et al. report that there is a tendency to reject the county as the geographic area for the intermediate unit in favor of the regional or multi-county approach. (17:121-122)

Young and Wynn identify a definite trend toward the growth of the intermediate unit as a regional agency. (18:98) The intermediate unit as a service agency is seen as strategically sandwiched between the state and local levels. The units or regional service agencies are seen as fulfilling entirely new roles different from the conventional county unit.

Although the county may have been a logical unit for administration of education, most counties today are neither natural clusters of population, nor reasonable administrative units. The county superintendency seems to continue largely because the office is a political one in many states and "political offices are not usually eliminated in this country." (16:137-138)

Also, the intermediate district organization in many states has not progressed to meet the needs of the local district for its services. "Consequently, structural reorganization and improvements in the internal organization of intermediate districts constitute a problem which is perhaps only second to reorganization of local school districts." (19:66)

Nine states--Washington, Colorado, Texas, Nebraska, Iowa, Wisconsin, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania--have recently reorganized on a regional basis. The types of restructuring involved in these nine states are:

1) Abolishment of county intermediate districts and mandatory replacement with regional education service agencies.

2) Establishment of regional educational service agencies without abolishment of county intermediate districts.

3) County option on abolishing the county intermediate superintendency and local district option on forming new types of intermediate service agencies.

4) Consolidation of small intermediate districts.

5) Statewide plan of intermediate district enlargement and with provision for adoption by county boards of education. (3:37-42)

The nine states have names their middle-echelon regional agencies differently; the regional intermediate unit names are:

1) Colorado: Boards of Cooperative Services (BOCS)

2) Iowa: Regional Educational Service Agencies (RESA)

3) Nebraska: Educational Service Units (ESU)

4) New York: Boards of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES)

5) Oregon: Intermediate Education District (IED)

6) Pennsylvania: Intermediate Unit (IU)

7) Texas: Regional Education Service Center (RESC)

8) Washington; Intermediate School District (ISD)

9) Wisconsin: Cooperative Educational Service Agency (CESA)

III. SELECTED STATE DEVELOPMENT

Included in this section are summaries of four States--Iowa, New York, Texas and Wisconsin--that have developed regional approaches to middle-echelon administrative service units and illustrate different historical and organizational characteristics. Michigan, California, Pennsylvania, Oregon, Washington, Colorado, Nebraska, Ohio, Illinois, Minnesota and North Carolina have developed or are currently studying some form of regional intermediate educational cooperative, and a brief discussion of these states can be found in Chapter I,pp. 9-11.

Iowa

The Iowa General Assembly created the Office of the County Superintendent in 1858. The role of the county superintendent in Iowa was considered to be that of the educational leader and general supervisory officer of the many small districts not operating high schools in a predominantly rural state. The office of the county superintendent in Iowa changed role in 1948 with the creation of a county school system involving an elected board of education and an appointed county superintendent. The law was permissive in allowing county offices to furnish requested educational programs and services to local school districts. Two or more county systems could provide services cooperatively and two or more county systems could employ one superintendent to serve a multiple area. However, the superintendent was required to meet separately with each board. This restructured county unit was used to preserve local autonomy while hopefully becoming the means for making comprehensive and adequate educational programs available to all children. (20:1-3)

In June, 1957, the Iowa Association of Superintendents unanimously requested the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction to organize a study of the county school system in Iowa and the future development of the intermediate unit within the State. Subsequently, in the Summer of 1957, the Iowa Research Committee for the Study of Intermediate Units of School Administration in Iowa was formed and charged with the preparation of a report concerning the intermediate unit in Iowa. This report, completed in April, 1960, concluded by stressing that legislation should be enacted to establish a state system of intermediate units to strengthen the educational program in the local districts. Primary responsibility of the intermediate unit would be leadership in the improvement of local programs of education, coordination of resources, and providing specialized educational services which could not be effectively and efficiently provided by the local districts. A secondary purpose of reorganization would be to aid the State Department of Public Instruction in development of statewide policies. The concept of service would be promoted, while the concept of authority would be discouraged. Specific services should be cooperatively planned.

This study also recommended that the intermediate unit have a minimum student enrollment of 10,000 with six to 15 school districts participating in a 1,600 to 4,000 square mile socioeconomic area. The area should have a city as its center such that it would be no more than 40 miles from outlying towns and village centers.

This study also emphasized that a flexible structure should be provided that would not restrict local school district reorganization and that would permit cooperation between intermediate units.

Tax levying authority, state support on an equalization formula, contractual arrangements between the local school systems in the intermediate unit, and the ability to rent or expend funds for capital outlay were also recommended. (20)

The Iowa Legislature in 1964 enacted legislation providing for statewide patterns of merged areas, subject to approval by the State Board of Education. Iowa approached its problems in a unique manner by conforming the regional agency development around area vocational school and community college organization. The state board originally approved 15 "merged" areas for vocational schools or community colleges. Ten were designated for community colleges offering vocational-technical programs and five for area vocational school purposes. "Merged" area boards, consisting of five to nine members elected by popular vote, can levy taxes for operation and the voters can levy additional taxes for facilities. Legislation also provided for the combination of two or more county intermediate districts. These combined intermediate districts would thus meet the state board policy of matching the "merged" area established for vocational schools or community colleges. Some counties have combined and others are in the process of study. (2: 44)

A sixteenth area has been proposed under the plan for the establishment of 16 multi-county intermediate districts. These centers have been designated to receive all ESEA II funds for regional library and materials centers and some ESEA IV funds for special education services. (Proposed legislation for the mandated establishment of these centers may be offered in 1971.) Paul F. Johnston, Superintendent of the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, said that the regional education service agency has top priority and will be a vehicle for changing classroom instruction through the provision of services, and that each center needs computer facilities for fiscal reporting, computer-aided instruction, and so on. Currently, there are nine combinations of at least sections of counties established in the multi-district organizations. An organization chart for one of these combinations can be found in Figure 1.

In discussing the Iowa intermediate unit, Ralph C. Norris, Superintendent of the Polk County Board of Education, pointed out that whether living in rural areas, in cities, or in suburbs, residents may all have equal needs. They often receive unequal services because many local schools cannot afford the specialized programs required for modern education and training services. He attributed the problem partially to the shift of population from predominantly rural to predominantly urban areas. This problem continues through the population shift from the urban centers to the surrounding suburbs. (21)

To show the success of these multi-district organizations, Dwight G. Bode, Superintendent of Schools for the Joint County System of Cedar, Johnson, Linn, and Washington Counties, indicated that the joint county system was about to introduce a cooperative buying program for the purchase of paper supplies and audio-visual equipment with the estimated saving to local districts of 15 to 25 percent. With the addition of two delivery vans to the Joint County Media Center, over 36,000 books and 25,465 films had been used by the close of the first semester as compared to 35,851 books and 25,534 films used during the entire 1967-68 school year. (21)

New York

In 1948, the New York Legislature authorized local school boards to form Boards of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES) as a corporate body extension of local districts and subject to their control. New York established the BOCES pending the creation of intermediate districts. However, the BOCES seemed to work so effectively that the intermediate districts were never formed. (22:13) "The express purpose of the BOCES organization was to provide shared programs and services, particularly in rural areas where limited resources often restrict the depth and breadth of offerings in individual school districts." (23:1) For the most part establishment of BOCES followed the jurisdiction of the district Superintendency.

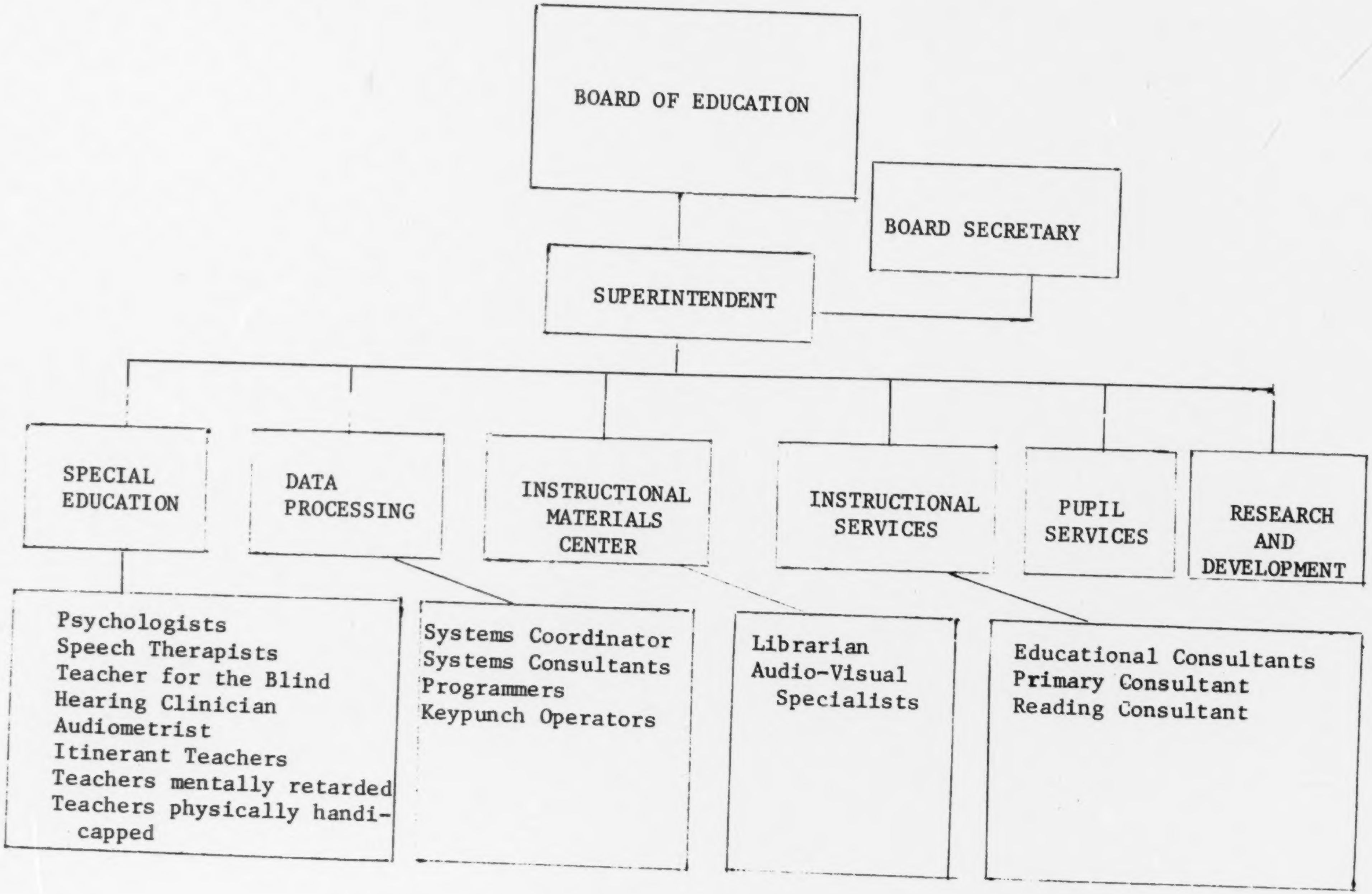
BOARD OF EDUCATION
BOARD SECRETARY
SUPERINTENDENT
SPECIAL EDUCATION
DATA PROCESSING
INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS CENTER
INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES
PUPIL SERVICES
RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
Psychologists
Speech Therapists
Teacher for the Blind
Hearing Clinician
Audiometrist
Itinerant Teachers
Teachers mentally retarded
Teachers physically handicapped
Systems Coordinator
Systems Consultants
Programmers
Keypunch Operators
Librarian
Audio-Visual Specialists
Educational Consultants
Primary Consultant
Reading Consultant

Figure 1.

Organizational Chart--Muscatine-Scott County School System, Davenport, Iowa

While in 1960 there were 84 BOCES, the number had been reduced to 59 by 1967 (23: 1). As of January, 1970, the "Directory of the Executive Staff of the BOCES of New York State," prepared by the Educational Administration and Supervision Division of the New York State Department of Education, listed 53 BOCES. Currently, there are plans for a network of 45 BOCES, but since some of these may not be large enough geographically for certain needs, there continues to be a need for regional (multi-BOCES) sharing.

The establishment of BOCES is contingent upon a majority vote of the boards of education and school trustees of the school districts of a supervisory district. Independent school districts within the supervisory district may become members of the BOCES upon resolution of the boards of education and the BOCES organization subject to the approval of the Commissioner of Education. However, once approved, these districts may not withdraw membership and must participate in administrative costs of operating the BOCES. In 1963, the BOCES membership was extended to all city and village districts with populations less than 125,000. (24: 4)

The BOCES board consists of five to nine members elected by a majority of the school board members of the BOCES member districts. While the BOCES is a separate entity from the local school districts, it is, in effect, a legal extension of the local school district. The chief administrator of the BOCES is also the superintendent of a supervisory district. The number and geography of the supervisory districts are slowly being reorganized to be coterminous with the BOCES as retirements of superintendents occur. While the BOCES does not have tax levying authority, it can build and own property for vocational schools under the State Dormitory Authority. (25: 12)

The BOCES is primarily a service and advisory body. The BOCES extensively uses planning and advisory agencies such as the Chief School Administrators Council, Occupational Education Advisory Council, and the Curriculum Advisory Council. (24: 8-10)

The BOCES are required to share services such that services rendered only to a single district would not be eligible; services are available to all boards. Services are those which cannot be rendered singly by the local district, should not replace currently operating sound programs, and should be those which can meet standards to justify expenditures. Shared personnel cannot be provided to one district for more than 60 percent of their time. Shared services should not hinder reorganization efforts. Approval of shared services, including services for which there is not state aid, is for one year. Sparse population, distance, and other factors are considered in determining specific services. Physical facilities must be available. BOCES teachers are subject to the same certification requirements as local district personnel and may not be employed by the cooperative and the school district at the same time. (26: 7-8)

Each BOCES is an area public education agency created by order of the New York State Commissioner of Education on petition by local boards of education. Except for administrative costs, BOCES services are not imposed upon local districts but are the direct result of local districts' requests. Programs are supported by contract costs paid to BOCES by local districts. The BOCES receives state aid for its programs. (23)

The BOCES (1) appoint superintendents, (2) prepare budgets to operate educational programs, (3) furnish upon request part-time educational services to districts too small to employ full-time teachers, (4) make available services to supplement local staff, (5) determine needs by survey and research projects, (6) introduce new programs to fill these established needs, (7) operate vocational-technical education programs, (8) work with physically handicapped and mentally retarded, (9) improve lines of communication, and (1) provide supervisory service responsibility to the supervisory district program. (26)

Organization charts concerning the BOCES district superintendent and the BOCES system can be found in Figures 2 and 3.

New York BOCES are not generally coterminous with the county boundary lines, but are built around basic socio-economic units rather than political subdivisions. (22:25)

As an example of a BOCES, the first supervisory district BOCES in northern Westchester County is composed of 13 school districts covering 250 square miles and a student population of over 40,000. While historically, this BOCES began operations with shared teachers and guidance services, these efforts have been supplemented by programs and services with an annual budget in 1967-68 of 3.5 million dollars. This BOCES provides administrative and data processing aid, inservice workshops, aid in personnel selection and liaison with the State Department of Education. The electronic data processing component is concerned with pupil records, attendance, payroll, scheduling, and other information tasks which are performed on a fee-for-service basis. Special education for children who have learning disabilities, who are mentally retarded, or who are educable mentally-retarded is the largest single effort undertaken by this BOCES. Through this component a training ground for young teachers who wish to become special educators is provided. Over a dozen different vocational-technical education programs are offered on a centralized campus. Guidance and child study activities are based on a program of testing and counseling for students referred from local schools. Personnel services, occupational and college selection, inservice education for teachers, library science, mobile reading units, research (especially in the area of computer aided instruction), instructional media services, psychiatric consultative service, and transportation are provided. (23:1-11)

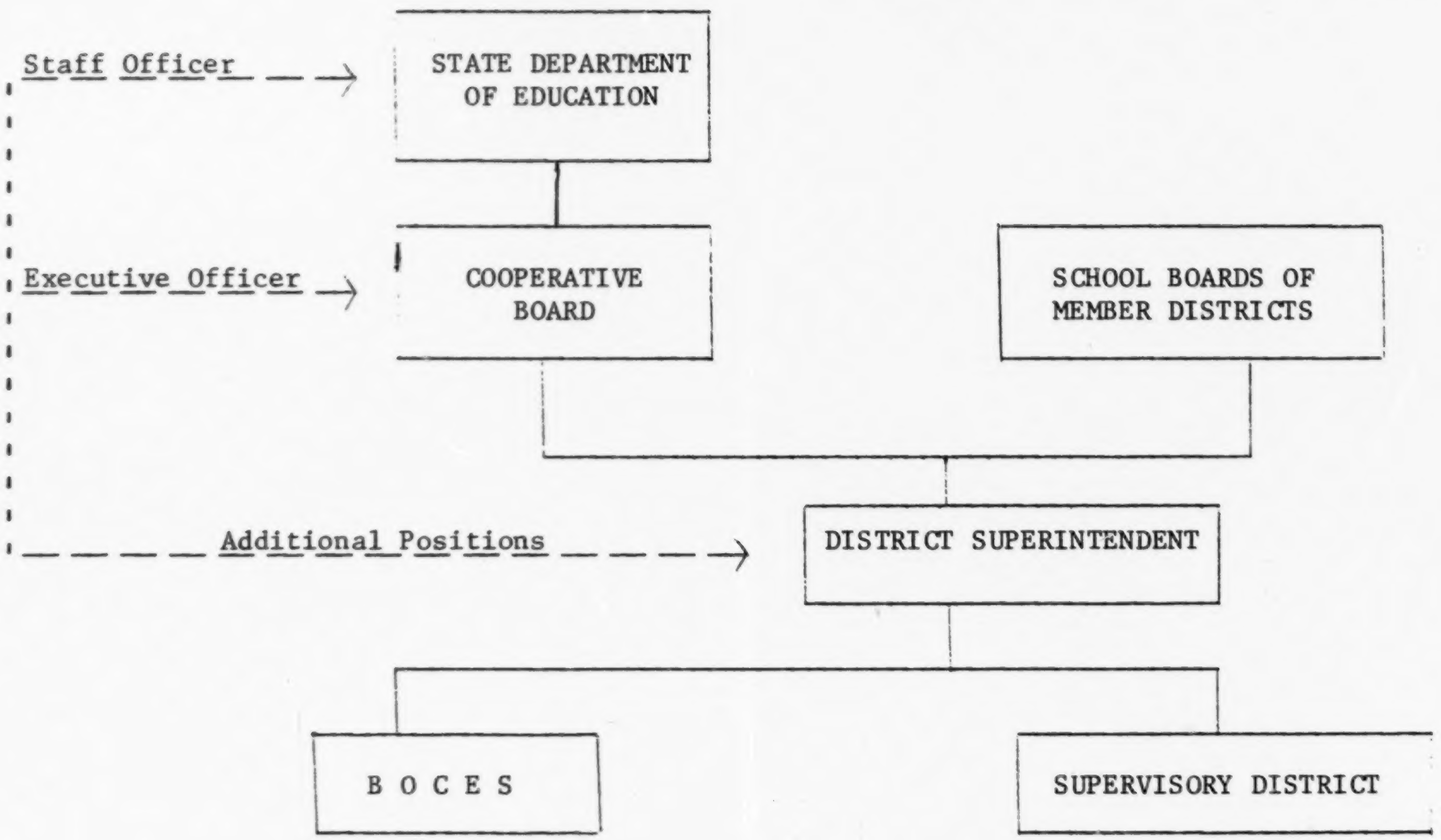
Staff Officer
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Executive Officer
COOPERATIVE BOARD
SCHOOL BOARDS OF MEMBER DISTRICTS
Additional Positions
DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT
B O C E S
SUPERVISORY DISTRICT

Figure 2.

New York District Superintendent

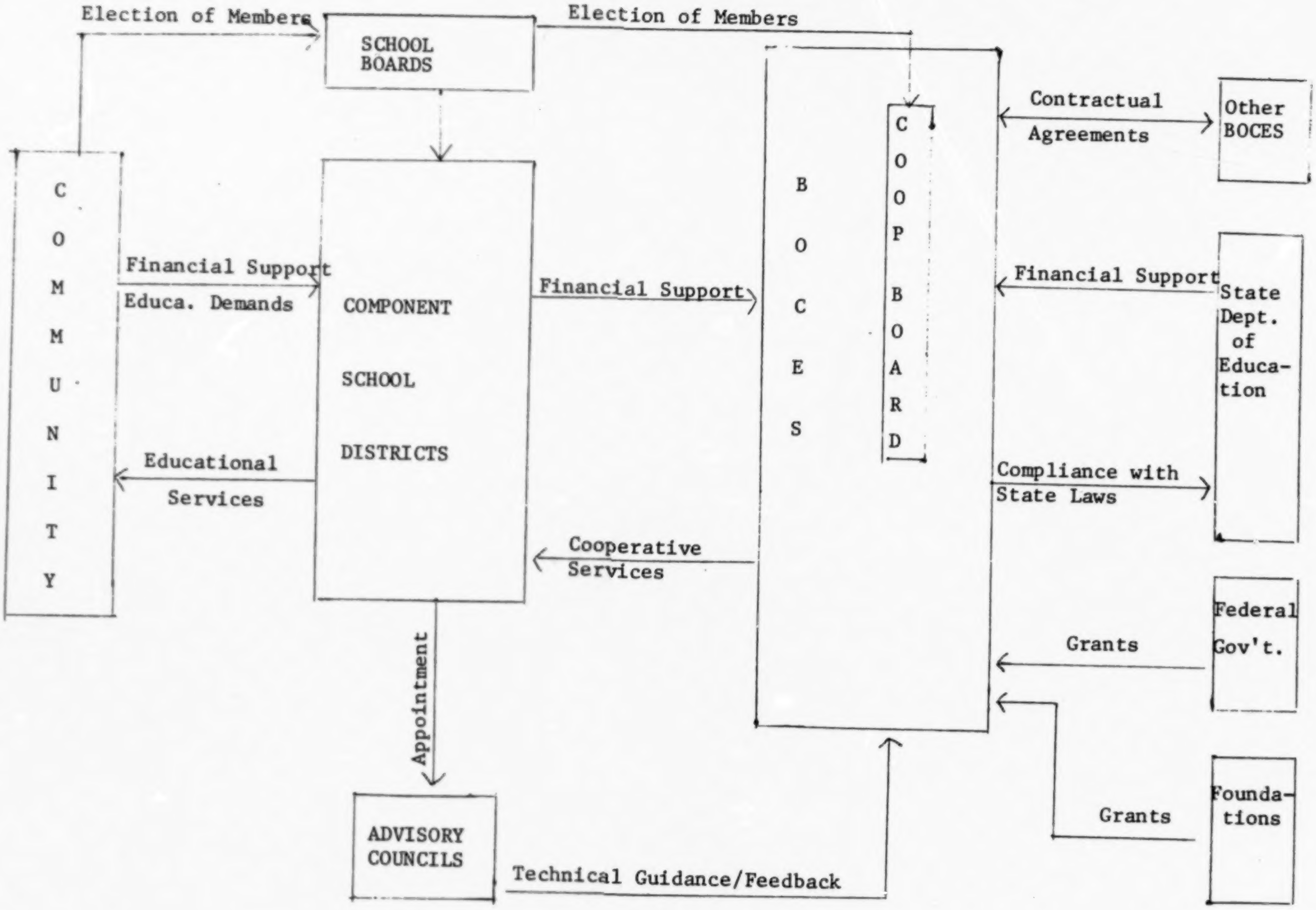
Election of Members
SCHOOL BOARDS
Election of Members
COMMUNITY
Financial Support
Educa. Demands
COMPONENT SCHOOL DISTRICTS
Educational Services
Financial Support
Cooperative Services
BOCES
COOP BOARD
Contractual Agreements
Other BOCES
Financial Support
State Dept. of Education
Compliance with State Laws
Federal Gov't.
Grants
Foundations
Grants
Appointment
ADVISORY COUNCILS
Technical Guidance/Feedback

Figure 3.

THE BOCES SYSTEM

In addition to the BOCES concept, the New York State Department of Education has proposed 16 regional centers for educational planning and development. The 16 regional centers would be directly responsible to the State Department of Education and would be financed by federal, state, and private sources. It is proposed that each center be administered by a regional council appointed by the Commissioner of Education and have a small permanent staff of professional and support personnel. Institutions of higher learning, post-secondary schools, school districts, libraries, and museums would be included within each center. As problems are identified, staff members of regional centers would act as catalytic and coordinative agents in the utilization of the entire resources of the region for the solution of problems. (27) (Emerson, at the 1970 National Conference on Regional Educational Programs, suggested that this possibly is the beginning of a "four-echelon" system of state education.)

Texas

Texas established 20 Regional Education Service Centers (RESC) through the authorization of the Legislature in 1965 for the establishment of state-supported regional media centers and a subsequent broadening of the definition to include provisions for a broad range of supplementary services. The Office of Planning in the Texas Education Agency had conducted an in-depth study of the feasibility of providing services on a regional basis, including the relationships of Title III, State Department of Education, higher education institutions, regional laboratories, and research and development centers. Therefore, the establishment of these education service centers became an integral part of the state education planning machinery. The major efforts of these educational service centers are to provide locally-oriented bases for planning, to operate regional media centers, to coordinate and encourage development of Title III programs, and to provide additional regional services.

In determining the nature of the regional boundaries, the State Board of Education looked at pupil population, geographic area, educational and cultural resources, and regional designations formulated by other state agencies for the purposes of planning. Thus, the state education planning fell into concert with other state-wide planning programs.

In May, 1967, each RESC received $67,000 for the purposes of planning and employing staff. Each LEA was asked to appoint a representative to serve on the Joint Committee for its region. Members of the Joint Committee are almost unanimously local school superintendents. The Joint Committee, then, elects lay citizens to the service center board of directors. This board of five to seven members residing in the region appoints the executive director and meets with the Joint Committee for planning purposes.

There is strong emphasis on the fact that the education service centers are not intermediate administrative units but are concerned with providing services for the local district and not to the local district. This concept is greatly aided since the centers are protected from any regulatory functions. There is also an extreme emphasis on comprehensive educational planning in establishing priorities, goals, and plans of action. It should be pointed out that independently each service center listed educational personnel development as one of its greatest needs, and therefore, the state has set this as its number one priority.

Membership in a regional education service center is not mandatory. However, the school districts may choose to be represented in the Joint Committee and participate fully in planning without receiving the cooperative services. Under provisions of a state-wide plan, the center can provide the following computer services: (1) student scheduling, (2) test scoring, (3) grade reporting, (4) pupil attendance, and (5) payroll.

Each center receives federal, state and local funds. Federal funds are primarily through Titles III and IV of ESEA. The education media operations centers are financed mainly through state and local funds. The state allowed the centers up to one dollar per pupil in average daily attendance if the local district would match the state share. The dependence of federal funds for a large portion of the financial support tends to produce an unstable situation as a result of the uncertainty of continuous funding. (28)

Two unique educational positions have been created as a result of the development of service centers--Educational Planners and Educational Communicators.

The Educational Planner has as his responsibility that of assessing educational needs and developing systems and means whereby these needs may be met in the region. There is one planner for each district, and they meet regularly with the Office of Planning of the Texas Education Agency. As one might expect, when it was first decided to create such a position, there was no one in the state trained specifically for such a role; no institution was training such people. At this point the state made a tremendous departure in that the Texas Education Agency contracted with General Learning Corporation to prepare a course in training educational planners. This course was developed by General Learning Corporation and ultimately twenty planners were trained.

The training of educational planners did not end, however, with the initial twenty regional center planners. Each of these persons then was charged with the responsibility of returning to their region and conducting in the local school districts the same type of workshop, so that the multiplier effect was acquired. Each local school district has an "educational planner" of some type, who works directly with the regional educational planner at regular meetings throughout the year. There is much local feedback and much local participation in the activities of the center.

The second unique position which has been created for the RESC is that of the Educational Communicator. The problem, early identified by local and state leaders, was how new programs and procedures were to be disseminated throughout the regions and between regions. Thus, there was created a "linker."

Wisconsin

In Wisconsin, the county superintendent initially had control over all schools within his district. However, a 1863 law providing that cities could create their own local school systems, resulted in many superintendents dealing primarily with the rural areas of the state. During the 1950's, more territory was added to city districts. Then, in 1959, the legislature provided for the jointures of county superintendents. (29:1) Since 1947, Wisconsin has reduced its number of local districts from 6,000 to 570. (2:37)

With the combination of many counties into a single unit and the reduction of enrollment of the public schools under the jurisdiction of county officers, the 1963-64 Wisconsin legislature established 19 Cooperative Educational Service Agencies (CESA) and abolished the county superintendent of schools office. Currently, each Wisconsin school district is a part of one of the 19 agencies with boundary lines generally not coterminous with county boundaries. (2:37)

The primary purpose of the agencies is to provide services and personnel to local districts they cannot economically and efficiently provide on their own. These are usually specialized and supportive services not commonly operational in local school systems. The agency "coordinator" is appointed by the board of control and serves as the chief administrator.

Each CESA is governed by a board of control composed of 11 members of the school boards of districts within it. Each year an annual convention is held for the purpose of determining the board of control. Each LEA board appoints one of its members as its representative to the convention. No more than one member may be a member of any school board within a given union high school area. The board of control elects its own chairman, vice chairman, and treasurer. The agency coordinator is appointed by the board of control for a term of not more than three years. The policy-making body approves service contracts with school districts and county courts and determines each district's prorated share of the cost of shared service programs. The board of control has no tax levying authority and state aid is in the amount of $29,000 per year (a raise to $35,000 is being considered). (29:11) An organizational chart can be found in Figure 4.

The CESA administrator's salary (minimum and maximum) is limited by law. The functions of these agencies are restricted to cooperatively planned and approved programs. By the establishment of CESAs and the elimination of the county superintendent of schools, each school system

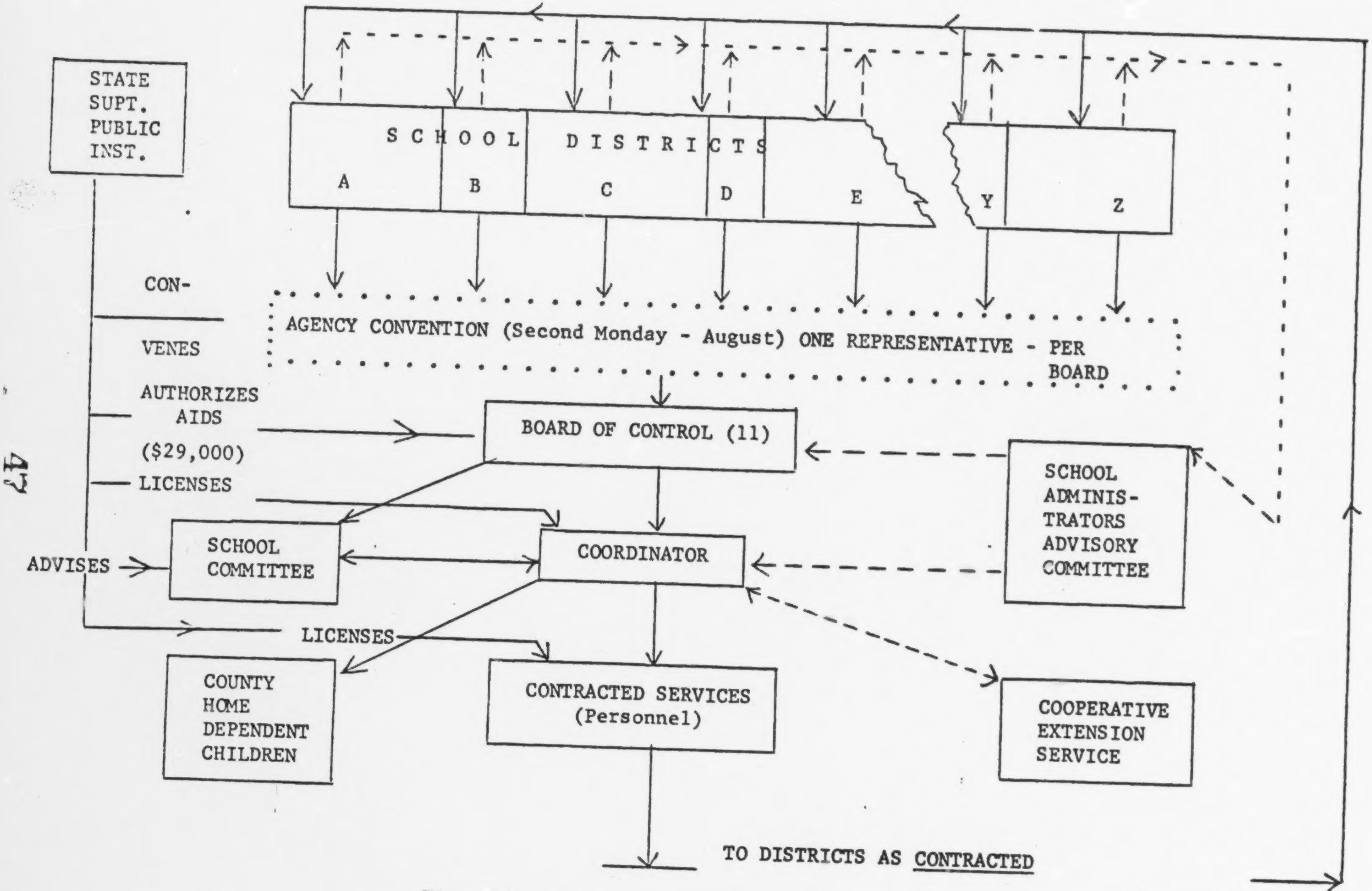
STATE SUPT. PUBLIC INST.
SCHOOL DISTRICTS
A
B
C
D
E
Y
Z
CON-
VENES
AUTHORIZES AIDS ($29,000)
LICENSES
AGENCY CONVENTION (Second Monday - August) ONE REPRESENTATIVE - PER BOARD
BOARD OF CONTROL (11)
SCHOOL ADMINIS-TRATORS ADVISORY COMMITTEE
ADVISES
SCHOOL COMMITTEE
COORDINATOR
LICENSES
COUNTY HOME DEPENDENT CHILDREN
CONTRACTED SERVICES (Personnel)
COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE
TO DISTRICTS AS CONTRACTED

Figure 4. Organizational Chart--CESA.

was assigned to its respective agency. Initially, no state support was provided for services to school systems. Therefore, all financial assistance was on a contractual basis between the local school systems involved. Each local school system may choose not to participate in services provided. (30:25-26)

A professional advisory committee composed of each school district administrator in the CESA area meets at the request to the board of control or agency coordinator to provide advice. (29:12)

An agency school committee composed of lay citizenry appointed to three-year terms by the board of control to help effect changes in school district structure and help implement plans to strengthen the administrative districts legally serves in the capacity of holding public meetings for grievances, to initiate petitions for legislative change, and to study and evaluate school district structure to determine if goals of equal and improved educational opportunities have been obtained. This committee, composed of seven residents of the territory within the agency, but limited to only one individual appointed from the territory served by each school district operating a high school, is appointed by a majority vote of the entire board of control. (29:13)

At least one CESA has recommended to the legislature that there by an increase in state administrative aid; an adoption of permissive legislation allowing the agency to employ an assistant or program consultant; an identification of those services that, because of efficiency, uniqueness, economy of frequency, can best be performed by service agencies; and provide available state aid to encourage the use of such services by the service agency. (31)

Kahl noted that although CESA's have no jurisdiction of responsibility over school districts since the agency exists to provide, cooperatively, needed services to school districts by contract and school districts accept and pay for only those services for which they have contracted, CESA's can provide any service that a school district may provide. The CESA's also serve as liaison between the state and local districts, but they are not an arm of the Department of Public Instruction. (32)

The major handicap in Wisconsin is the lack of taxing power and the small amount of state subsidy. (2:27)

IV. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

Isenberg stated:

> . . .the multi-district area has unquestionably been utilized as a local educational agency for complex specialized education functions. Its merit seems to be in its adaptability. It

furnishes a large enough population base to permit the operation of effective programs. At the same time its cooperative nature does not upset the existing school system structure. With such great advantages, even greater use of the multi-district local education agency can be expected in the future. (33)

The intermediate unit offers a structure through which new approaches may be made to both new and old ideas. Meeting together periodically, local school officials within an agency area are in an excellent position to acquire a broad view of regional matters that can place local accomplishments and local deficiencies in revealing perspective. (34:9)

The intermediate school district's most important role is as a service agent for local school districts. The services provided should develop out of the needs of children and their teachers in local districts. Secondarily, intermediate units should improve administration and structure of education within its region. Logically, obvious economies can be realized by cooperative action in administration and organization. Only those services should be considered that cannot be efficiently and effectively performed by the local school district.

Blore emphasized that intermediate school districts have the potential for equalization of educational opportunities, protection of local control, development of a change-agent role, promotion of economy and efficiency, coordination and improvement of educational planning, and reduction of contact points for liaison responsibilities of the state education agency. (35)

Regional service agencies based on state-wide planning units desirably associated with a state planning office would have some of the following strengths:

1) There would be the incorporation of educational planning and service delivery systems into the planning and service systems of other state agencies.

2) There would be an attempt to incorporate all the school districts of the state into units based on economic and geographic factors.

3) All units could have a major population trade center.

4) There would be a reduction in the wide range of assessed evaluation per pupil. (36:62)

Isenberg has disapproved of the tendency to examine one segment or level of education in the state at the exclusion of the total system of education in a state. He said, "What each one does depends on what the others do. And none can be considered in isolation without taking fully into account the structure and the functioning of the other levels." (37:21)

Various studies in many states have developed criteria for the establishment of regional intermediate educational cooperatives. A synthesis and checklist of these reports can be found in the attachment to this chapter. (38:3; 39; 20:4-11; 40:37; 30:75-76; 41:421-426; 41:414-415; 42; 43; 36:52-55)

The most controversial criterion in the formulation of regional intermediate units is the size of the service area. It is apparent that geographic limitations must be set to meet conditions found within the individual states. In Iowa, it was stated that too large an area "tends to make it more difficult to maintain channels of communication and the sociological community ties tend to be weakened." (20:57)

One study reported that:

> . . .apparently, there is growing recognition that conditions vary in different areas of the United States and even in specific areas of a single state. Such differences are compounded by the diverse philosophies upon which the intermediate operation is based in many states. The variations of the way the middle echelon is conceived within the framework of the total three-level state system also add to the overall differences from state to state. (11:120)

V. FUNCTIONS

One study classified the specific functions of the intermediate unit services and programs as follows: (1) administrative and staff personnel services and programs; (2) instructional services and programs; (3) student personnel and services; (4) special education services and programs; and (5) research and development services and programs. (11:139)

Campbell, et al. see the major functions of the intermediate unit as follows:

1) Planning for local district reorganization.

2) Determining the location of school plants.

3) Providing supplemental financing designed to further equalize educational opportunities.

4) Offering specialized educational programs, such as technical and junior college programs.

5) Providing specialized educational services such as psychiatric help to pupils in local districts.

6) Providing educational leadership to local school districts. (17:129-130)

Intermediate units have been described as having primary functions of articulation, coordination, and supplementation. In its articulative functions the intermediate unit acts as the housekeeper for state school administrative operation and at the same time lobbies for local educational needs at the state level. In its coordinative functions, the intermediate unit fosters cooperative spirit between local districts to solve common educational problems. In providing supplementary service functions, the intermediate unit provides instructional and other direct services local districts cannot provide completely, effectively, or economically by themselves. This function may be one of the major growth areas for intermediate districts nationally. Some of the more typical supplementary services are supervision of instruction, consultant help for teachers, operation of library and instructional materials centers, provision for psychological and guidance services, health services, special classes for handicapped pupils, speech and hearing therapy, and so on. (13:5-6)

Emerson pointed out that regional service agencies must plan to "spin off" functions when they become obsolete or the member districts are able to support them internally. (44:27)

VI. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The formal incorporation of some type of multi-district or multi-county intermediate service agency as an integral part of the state's formal education structure is a movement that has been increasing in strength since 1960. The demise of the old county office of superintendent and the growth of some form of intermediate or middle echelon organization has had tremendous impact on the states where this has occurred. During the past decade, approximately fifteen states have established a new unit of school government based upon a regional approach for the purpose of providing specialized programs and services for elementary and secondary schools or have reorganized existing units, usually the single county office of superintendent, for the improvement of educational delivery systems at the local school system level. Other states are currently examining this alternative through the state education agency, the state legislature, and/or executive branch of the state government.

The increased demand from a more highly technologically oriented society, urbanization and the subsequent suburbanization with the inherent population shifts, and the increased demand for providing equal educational opportunity for all youngsters have placed greater responsibility upon each state educational system and the subsequent organizational structure. Even though education is constitutionally a state responsibility, in operation most of the responsibility has been placed on the local educational agency. With the increased complexity of education and the specialized services and programs increasing in number and scope, local education agencies have not been able to keep up with the demand effectively and economically. Therefore, regional approaches to delivering services to meet the specialized educational needs of youth are increasingly being required.

Organization

Intermediate educational cooperatives are an integral part of the state system of educational administration. These agencies are legally established or permitted through state legislation and subsequently encouraged through state, federal and local funding. In most cases the intermediate unit is below the local education agency instead of a super-structure designed to overshadow the local school district; the intermediate unit receives direction from the local education agency. The state structure in which these organizations are found is frequently described as a three echelon system consisting of the state education agency, intermediate unit, and local education system. During the formation of the emerging regional intermediate unit, the old county superintendency has either been abolished or absorbed into the new intermediate unit.

Membership

Membership in intermediate units consists of the local school districts which comprise them. In some states it is optional for the county to vote for inclusion, while in others it is mandated. Most states are divided into regional agencies in which all school systems are involved, although in some states certain school systems of large size are not permitted or required to join. In Iowa, the regional boundaries have been designed to include either a community college or area vocational school which would them become an integral part of the educational program, though not necessarily having membership.

Governance

The traditional intermediate unit, the office of county superintendent, was either elected by popular vote or appointed by the state education agency. In some cases a policy board of elected lay citizens did not exist. More recently, the intermediate unit has consisted of a board of control elected by the people with the appointment of the executive officer. The emerging regional intermediate units vary in the manner in which the board of control is determined. In some states they are popularly elected; in other states they are elected by the school board members of the constituent districts from their own ranks; and in one state they are elected by a joint committee of the constituent school districts which is usually made up of the superintendents of the local education agencies. Situations exist where separate county school boards appoint a common administrator or superintendent who must meet separately with both boards in administering the joint unit.

It is generally recommended that the board of control be popularly elected lay citizenry with overlapping terms of office from three to four years. However, the election of a board of control by the school board members of constituent districts based upon a weighted ADM vote has much merit. States where the governing board consists of one representative of each of the constituent districts or limit membership to a set number from any constituent district may soon run unto the problem of conflict with the "one-man, one-vote" principle.

The authority of the governing boards of the intermediate units is either established in law or through regulations established by the state education agency. Where possible, it is recommended that powers and responsibilities of the boards of control be established through regulations of the state education agency so that changes can be made more easily as needs arise. Literature also indicates that the board of control of an intermediate unit should be empowered to establish its own rules and regulations subject to state education agency and/or statutory and constitutional constraints. The board of control of the intermediate unit should, as it most frequently does, have the authority to appoint its chief administrative officer and to approve staff upon the recommendation of this officer.

Size and Geography

Existing intermediate units have a wide range of student population depending upon the state's organization and natural geography or terrain. It is generally considered that the minimum student enrollment for any multi-county regional intermediate unit should be 10,000 pupils with an optimum range of 50,000 to 60,000 students. It should be pointed out, however, that this optimum is probably not sufficient to offer extensive computer programs and facilities economically and efficiently. One of the chief considerations in determining geographic size is the driving time from any point within the region to the center or centers that house program offerings. A common "rule of thumb" is that driving time to the centers should not exceed one hour for 90 percent of the area to be serviced.

Currently, intermediate units in the United States vary from single counties to multi-county organizations. However, the boundaries of the regional intermediate units may or may not be coterminous with the existing political county boundaries. This is usually determined by the strength of the county political and administrative functions. Where the multi-county intermediate unit is not coterminous with county boundaries, the region seems to have been planned on a socio-economic basis. Other considerations given to the formation of regional agencies are the number and kinds of local school systems involved, the financial base, trade and service areas, climate, the demand for services that would be placed upon the regional intermediate unit, and sociological community ties.

Function

The primary role of the intermediate unit is to offer programs and services to aid local school systems in providing equal educational opportunity for all students within the service area. The services provided by the intermediate units in the United States vary considerably. They may deal with inservice education, special education, guidance, curriculum development, vocational and adult education, cooperative purchasing, educational television, electronic data processing, media, shared teachers, library, etc. Many regional intermediate units are extensively involved in planning on short- and long-range bases. These planning functions seem to be rapidly emerging and necessitate the regional intermediate unit working cooperatively with other state and federal agencies.

Many of these intermediate units are involved in the developmental programs which are designed to work out the bugs so that the program can be "spun off" as soon as the constituent districts are able to support it internally.

Whatever the types of services provided to local school districts, they are usually determined by the criteria of the inability of the local district to provide the service on an economical, effective, and efficient basis itself.

It should also be pointed out that those intermediate units which do not have a state regulatory function operate most effectively with the local education agency and are seen as providing services to and not for the local education agencies. Naturally, this has implications for state laws, rules and regulations.

Personnel

High staff quality and highly specialized personnel are the most striking characteristics of successful intermediate cooperative education units. The following types of specialties required indicate the variety of personnel needs and opportunities connected with intermediate units: (1) curriculum content, (2) legal problems, (3) team teaching, (4) flexible scheduling, (5) educational planning, (6) educational redesigning, (7) testing, (8) programmed instruction, (9) curriculum research, (10) research, (11) educational television, (12) child development, (13) teacher recruitment, (14) communications, (15) general administration, etc. One intermediate unit in Michigan employs a full-time lobbyist to work with state and federal legislators in obtaining or influencing new legislation and possible sources of funding.

Excellent salary schedules and/or various other fringe benefits and privileges are apparent keys to the successful recruitment of quality staff personnel. The regionalism of many intermediate units provides a "district" size large enough to allow for a high degree of specialization by extremely qualified personnel who are typically given the freedom to perform within their own specialty areas. Current and projected activities of intermediate units will require personnel trained in: (1) planning, (2) communication, (3) media and technology, (4) program development, (5) evaluation, (6) computer applications, etc. Some intermediate units have been forced to develop their own training programs, especially in the rapidly emerging area of educational planning.

Financing

Intermediate units vary in their authority to levy taxes to provide funds for operational programs. Some intermediate units have been deliberately limited in the amount of state funds provided for administration and program operation to force local cooperation and mutually funded programs between constituent members of the intermediate unit. It is recommended that the intermediate unit be empowered to levy taxes and have fiscal independence and fiscal integrity. Intermediate units should be eligible to receive federal aid, other gifts, and grants for the operation of specialized services. Regional intermediate units should also be eligible to bond for the construction of the facilities. Contractual arrangements between the intermediate unit and local school systems to provide services are one of the most common forms of funding and definitely indicates program commitment. Some states provide funds on a matching basis for specific programs. Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Act has been used extensively in funding operational programs at the intermediate unit level. The trend toward more planning and evaluation activities through Title III of ESEA encourages continuation of this funding since the intermediate unit is one of the most logical agencies to perform these tasks.

Trends

Some type of intermediate unit between the local school system and the state education agency appears essential since public education is obviously involved in a period of profound change, and modern conditions will continue to dictate further change. Most recent developments have emphasized the regional concept of multi-district cooperation with coordinative, planning and supplementary service functions. Since 1965 there has been a considerable movement toward the establishment of intermediate units on a regional basis with many states considering this alternative. The advantage in this type of an agency that is most attractive to local education systems is the ability to maintain local autonomy while obtaining needed specialized services for students. A matter of prime consideration for the establishment of multi-county intermediate units is that this structure provides an opportunity to equalize the tax base at a more local level than has previously existed.

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While mid-America has been the center of the force for the emergence of the regional intermediate units, the Southeastern United States, which has few of these cooperative programs, has probably the most potential for their development. (The recent emergence of voluntary educational cooperatives and investigations of legislative councils, gubernatorial committees, and state education agencies into regional education service agencies in the Southeast emphasize this point.) It is obvious that the single county office of county superintendent is waning and other structures must be found to provide the services.

Regional intermediate units do indeed have a meaningful future. Many educational functions require a regional approach. This is especially true in rural areas. Those areas lacking cooperative structures can certainly learn from the experience of states and regions where achievements have been made.

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ATTACHMENT

CHECKLIST OF CRITERIA FOR MIDDLE-ECHELON STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

FUNCTIONS

1. Primary responsibility and orientation of this agency should be to the local districts served. It should be a helper rather than a master.
2. The service function should be emphasized.
3. Helping provide equal educational opportunities for all children should be the principal function.
4. These agencies should provide higher quality leadership and services to constituent districts, perform liaison roles between local and state education agencies and perform only those services (frequently specialized) that cannot be provided efficiently and effectively by constituent districts.
5. Services should not duplicate other local or state operations.
6. Functions should be flexible enough to adapt to changing educational needs.
7. Provisions should be made to encourage local districts to assume certain service functions of the middle-echelon unit as soon as they are able and to discontinue agency functions no longer necessary.
8. Services and programs should be appropriate to regional operations.
9. Services should offer the best that technology and educational and para-educational disciplines have to offer.
10. These agencies might provide such services as the following to local districts to assist them in providing a comprehensive educational program for all children or adults within their service area.

    (a) education of exceptional children (handicapped and gifted);
    (b) audio-visual;
    (c) library;
    (d) guidance and attendance;
    (e) curriculum development and consultant services;

(f) advisory services in school administration and business;
(g) health;
(h) supervision of instruction;
(i) vocational and adult education;
(j) research;
(k) cooperative purchasing;
(l) transportation;
(m) educational television;
(n) community college education;
(o) computer operations;
(p) planning;
(q) evaluation.

11. Developmental or exploratory functions should be initiated by this agency for the local school districts.

12. Services should be available only to those districts which decide to participate in each specific service.

13. Local school districts should assist in planning specific services.

14. Programs which can be regarded as research or experimental should be in operation.

15. Local school system pilot or experimental programs mutually agreed upon could be subsidized by the middle-echelon agency.

16. Nonschool agency service programs could be coordinated at this level.

17. Evaluation of services has high priority.

ORGANIZATION AND GOVERNANCE

1. The board of control should consist of approximately 5 to 10 lay citizens elected at large by residents of the service area.

2. The board of control should have the authority to employ its chief administrator, set salary, and approve additional personnel recommended by the chief administrator.

3. Written policies for governing should be developed and their effectiveness evaluated. Local districts, administrators, and boards should participate in developing these policies.

4. Structure should be flexible enough for adaptation to changing needs.

5. The board of control holds regular meetings--at least 12 times during the year.

6. The terms of office for the board of control should be sufficiently long and staggered to provide experience and continuity at all times.

SERVICE AREA

1. Boundaries should be determined by a logical combination of contiquous districts or areas based on a larger community concept with the areas previously sharing many other services together.

2. Boundaries of the middle echelon agency need not be coterminous or limited to a single or a combination of county political boundaries. Socio-economic considerations for the establishment of boundaries might be given priority.

3. Student population size suggestions vary from a minimum of 4,000 to 10,000 and an optimum of 15,000 to 50,000 with no limit on maximum size. Justification of minimum size is frequently based upon the economy of maintenance of reasonably articulated program mix. (This writer suggests that a minimum student population of 10,000 with an optimum of 50,000 to 60,000 is desirable. Extreme conditions of population, sparsity or topography may necessitate smaller enrollments.)

4. Service area in square miles has been suggested as a minimum of 500, an optimum of 2,000 to 5,000 and a maximum of 12,000.

5. Such factors as social unity or diversity, topography, trade and service area, roads and highways (current and projected), climate, location of population within local districts, the types of demands for services required by local districts and the state education agency, degree of

impoverishment, degree of concentration of culturally deprived children, basic administrative units included, travel distance to service center(s), financial and resource base, occupational and cultural diversity, and ethnic composition of the population should be taken into account in determining boundaries and service areas.

6. The service area should be small enough to facilitate communication, coordination and sensitivity to local community differences and sufficiently large enough to provide efficiency and economically a broad range of services, to represent a challenge to educational leadership, and to attract and hold the highest level of educational leadership.

7. There should be specific provision for the reorganization of the middle echelon agency similar to those applied to local school districts.

FINANCING

1. Fiscal independence and integrity should be provided. There should be independent taxing power and the authority to determine own budget.

2. Financing should be flexible enough to allow adaptation to changing needs.

3. The agency should be financed with a variety of public funds (state, federal and local).

4. State funds made available should be determined in part by educational need and the financial ability of the various intermediate units.

5. Services which are not provided generally to all districts should be available on a contract basis to school districts desiring them.

6. Provision should be made whereby local school districts may contract some services from the middle echelon agency and an agency may contract services from a local district or another middle echelon agency.

STAFFING

1. The chief administrator should be a person with sufficient qualifications and competence to earn and deserve professional recognition by the administrators of all types of local districts. The board of control should not be limited in its choice of superintendent by any sort of residence requirement.

2. The chief administrator should be expected to hold qualifications at least equal to those held by superintendents in local school districts.

3. The salary of the chief administrator should be comparable to or higher than the average salary paid to local district superintendents in the agency service area.

4. There should be a salary schedule or schedules for all employed personnel.

5. All professional staff members would be expected to hold qualifications equal to or better than their counterparts in local school districts.

6. The salary of the next highest paid professional staff member should be at least two-thirds to three-fourths the amount paid to the chief administrator.

7. The agency should be organized in such a way that it can raise the level of competence of its staff to meet the higher qualities in leadership which will be required as larger districts are created through population growth and school district reorganization.

8. Staffing should be based on a division of labor by specialty, and the operation should be departmentalized.

9. All faculty members periodically and some faculty members continuously should be provided developmental and technical help in their professional operations.

10. When the agency's service personnel work in a local district,they do so in the framework of local district policies and under the supervision of local district administrators.

LEGAL AND STATE CONSIDERATIONS

1. All of the territory of the state should be included in agency boundaries as established.

2. The legal functions of the agency should be defined as clearly as practical. This agency should have legal authority for all legal functions assigned to it by law.

3. No services other than those discharged to the performance of state statutory or regulatory function should be arbitrarily imposed on the local units.

4. A state should not perform educational services which the middle echelon agency or local unit can perform more effectively and efficiently.

5. The agency should be related to other governmental structures of the state.

6. The board of control should have legal authority to acquire, maintain, and equip its own facilities (bonding authority included).

7. The agency should be an integral part of the state system of education.

8. The functions, organization, and financing should be defined clearly and specified in the state law. The law should provide a sound basis for the relationship between the middle echelon agency and local school districts, the state education agency, and other governmental units or agencies.

9. The state education agency should insure that these criteria apply in some normative fashion across the geography of the state.

CHAPTER III

VOLUNTARY EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

I. INTRODUCTION

> As education is confronted with ever-increasing problems and the complexities involved in solving them, more and more schoolmen are becoming aware that neither they nor individual school systems can do the job alone. Leaders in the schools are turning in many different directions to obtain help. They look to universities . . . to private industry . . . to federal and state governments . . .. Another and possibly the most effective direction in long-range terms, they turn to fellow schoolmen for resources, knowledge, and power to confront common problems. (1: 2-3)

Between 1965 and the present, a number of states have enacted legislation to encourage or to mandate the "new or flexible intermediate unit" type of educational cooperative, as discussed in The Flexible Intermediate Unit in California.* (2; 3) Also, other states have allowed the formation of the new intermediate type without the enactment of special legislation. Many of these regional agencies or cooperatives can be designated as "voluntary educational cooperatives."

Voluntary educational cooperatives were not easy to identify. They often have not published or widely disseminated their purposes, activities, and results. Difficulty in locating such cooperatives has not been limited to this study, as noted from the following:

> The largest percentage of interagency cooperation taking place today is on the local level. . . . Some area-wide cooperation, however, has resulted from specific state or federal legislation. (4: 18)

> Except for special acts, the state govenments have not been deeply involved in interagency cooperation. (4: 18)

> Much of the cooperation which is taking place today is not regularly found in education or governmental literature, yet is very important in the day-to-day operations of a school

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*States enacting legislation since 1965 to form "new" intermediate units are: Colorado, Iowa, Michigan, Nebraska, New York, Pennsylvania, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin.

> system. This cooperation is of an informal nature, and often has no formal structure. For example, in solving specific problems a superintendent might work with the welfare office, the courts, or the recreation department by merely using the telephone. (4: 18-19)
>
> There are many different models of cooperation, both in theory and in practice. (4: 19)
>
> Probably the largest number of formal agreements between school systems and one or two local agencies are never reported. (4: 20)

Voluntary Educational Cooperatives: A Definition and Exclusions*

Various cooperative arrangements exist between and among schools and between schools and other organizations in society. Some arrangements have been mandated; others have developed informally--usually in response to common problems recognized by the constituents. "Voluntary educational cooperatives" include formal cooperation in education which has not developed because of some mandate or legal requirement from a particular governmental level, especially from the state level. For inclusion in this study a voluntary cooperative must have some identifiable formal and durable structure and a governing board for the cooperative arrangement. Informal, nonstructured, ad hoc, or short-term arrangements between and among schools and other agencies are not specific content for this study, although references may be made to them. For example, Title III ESEA activities are generally excluded since in most cases they are essentially ad hoc; they conclude or change once original funding has terminated, or they may not be truly cooperative since one or two districts receive most services and other districts are involved only tangentially. Some states have regionalized for planning and developing Title III projects. Whenever this occurs, the "cooperative" is no longer "voluntary," even though there may be no penalty if a local district within the Title III region does not participate.

Although local school districts may cooperate with other agencies (such as a health department), unless that agency is represented on the board of control of the cooperative (either in a voting or advisory capacity), the agency is not considered a member of the voluntary cooperative. If, for example, a cooperative includes local schools, higher education, and the state education agency (SEA), and the governing board includes those units, the cooperative will be identified as composed of local schools, higher education, and the SEA. Thus, a major determinant for identification of a voluntary cooperative is the composition of the governing board; a second determinant is related to contributions (financial or in-kind) for operation of the cooperative.

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*Refer also to Chapter I of this study for detailed discussion of definitions of cooperativesor regional education agencies.

Voluntary educational cooperatives, then, may be termed confederations of school districts and other agencies. The cooperative may fall within the definition of a local educational agency in the state or states where it is located, or within the general definition of local education agency provided in Public Law 89-10, Section 601. In such cases, the voluntary cooperative can be treated in the federal funding process just like any other local educational agency. (5: 246-253)

Overview

Although educational cooperation has accelerated since the impetus given it by recent federal enactments, voluntary cooperatives had existed previously. School study councils, one major type of voluntary cooperative, started in 1942. Formal arrangements between and among schools and industry, and schools and other agencies have existed for some time. However, new organizations and arrangements, new processes and procedures, and new techniques for financing and governing cooperatives have constantly been developing; educational cooperation has been expanding and is now found in some form in all states and most school districts.

Voluntary cooperatives often have been formed in response to local awareness that each local school may be unable to meet the needs of the community it serves, and that a number of contiguous school districts have the same or similar needs and problems. Superintendents from adjoining districts then decide to work together to solve common problems. Whether the thrust for this cooperation comes from the superintendents, boards of education, teachers and administrators, or from other sources in the community makes little difference. The idea is generated and initial action for cooperation comes from the local level. This "grass roots" approach is likely to be effective and successful since it has, from the outset, the support and involvement of the local people.

The voluntary educational cooperative usually recognizes as a basic assumption that there are certain political realities in the concept of local control. The cooperative works within these political realities to develop its innovative outlook within the constraints imposed by the formal system; it builds upon the educational structure to provide the catalyst for new educational ideas and developments.

Major elements of the grass roots approach to voluntary educational cooperation are captured in the foreword to the "Activity Report for the Cooperating School Districts of the St. Louis Suburban Area." (This cooperative initiated activity in 1928 and has been providing audiovisual services since 1931.) While eloquently stating the philosophy of cooperation, this summary provides insight into activities of educational cooperatives.

> The Cooperating School Districts of the St. Louis Suburban Area operates on a formal basis, yet serves as a voluntary organization, with cohesive qualities binding districts together on matters of curriculum, educational television, audio-visual services, legislative programs, research, and other areas of commonality. The districts are dedicated to the concept of unity and this is a prevailing organizational characteristic. However, the right to disagree is a guarded prerogative and is exercised as needed in the process of decision-making and policy formulation.
>
> As a result of this broad operational base, it is possible to integrate the leadership that flourishes in the twenty-nine member districts, thereby affording many additional benefits for the total educational community. The cooperative activities of the members of this group are numerous and diverse. . . . They perform as a service agency, a policy-making body, a developer of curriculum, a framer of school legislation, and a promoter of inservice programs. Additionally, they have a strong orientation toward research and the dissemination of information and statistical data relevant to local districts. Members of this organization have contributed much time and effort toward upgrading cooperative programs to their existing levels. (6: Foreword)

The voluntary educational cooperative as conceived by the Appalachia Education Laboratory (AEL) and as implemented by local districts in Appalachia has been described and defined in recent issues of the Appalachian Advance. (7; 8; 9; 10; 11; 12; 13; 14; 15; 16; 17; 18)

> This, then, is the objective of the Educational Cooperative: to provide a structure and process by which the inventions of change--and there are many good ones--can make effective long-term contributions to the education of Appalachian children.
>
> The Educational Cooperative is seen by AEL as an organization of people, ideas, money, and potential organized as a confederation of local school districts which in concert with a state department of education and local college or university voluntarily bind themselves together to increase their capacity for offering educational opportunities. (11:8)
>
> Progress has been made in the development of an Educational Cooperative in eastern Tennessee and progress is being made toward the development of five other Cooperatives within the Appalachian region. No two of the Cooperatives are developing exactly alike, but educational problems throughout the region are similar enough that what is learned in one development project probably can be applied in others. (11: 9)

An educational cooperative provides the impetus and framework for developing new directions in education. It is not just another approach to shared services; it must provide organization and governance for educational development and for promising innovations in education.

Informal review of successful educational cooperatives shows that they often are located where school development and/or study councils have existed. This phenomenon, consistent throughout the United States, suggests that educational cooperatives have more strength, longevity, and apparent effectiveness when they are begun through local initiative.

While much educational cooperation started at the grass roots, once cooperation has started, it becomes easier for formal cooperative arrangements to develop. The next section offers selected examples from several states to highlight this trend and demonstrate the grass roots approach to voluntary educational cooperatives.

II. LOCAL INITIATIVE

A number of voluntary educational cooperatives have developed from local or grass roots activities. In some cases, there has been external assistance, but major efforts have been local. Sometimes, the educational cooperative has followed some other type of cooperative.

One group of voluntary cooperatives exists in Appalachia, encouraged there both by the Appalachian Educational Laboratory (AEL) and the Appalachian Regional Commission (ARC). The ARC has approached problems of the Appalachian region by encouraging local cooperation. The Local Development District (18; 19; 20) and the Regional Educational Service Agency (RESA) (21) concepts are key elements in plans to encourage persons and organizations in Appalachia to cooperate for mutual benefit and growth. Neither the AEL nor the ARC has legal or legislative authority to require organization of cooperatives; therefore, cooperatives encouraged by either organization are legitimately called voluntary educational cooperatives. These cooperatives, however, are characterized by some organizational structure, are governed by a formal board and are partially financed through local school cash or in-kind contributions. The AEL in Charleston, West Virginia, is presently (1971) assisting with the development of educational cooperatives in Kentucky, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, and Virginia. The following page from the May, 1970, issue of Education USA explains the AEL concept of the voluntary educational cooperative.*

Virginia

Educational cooperation in the Dickenson-Lee-Scott-Wise County area of southwestern Virginia in formal form goes back to about 1960

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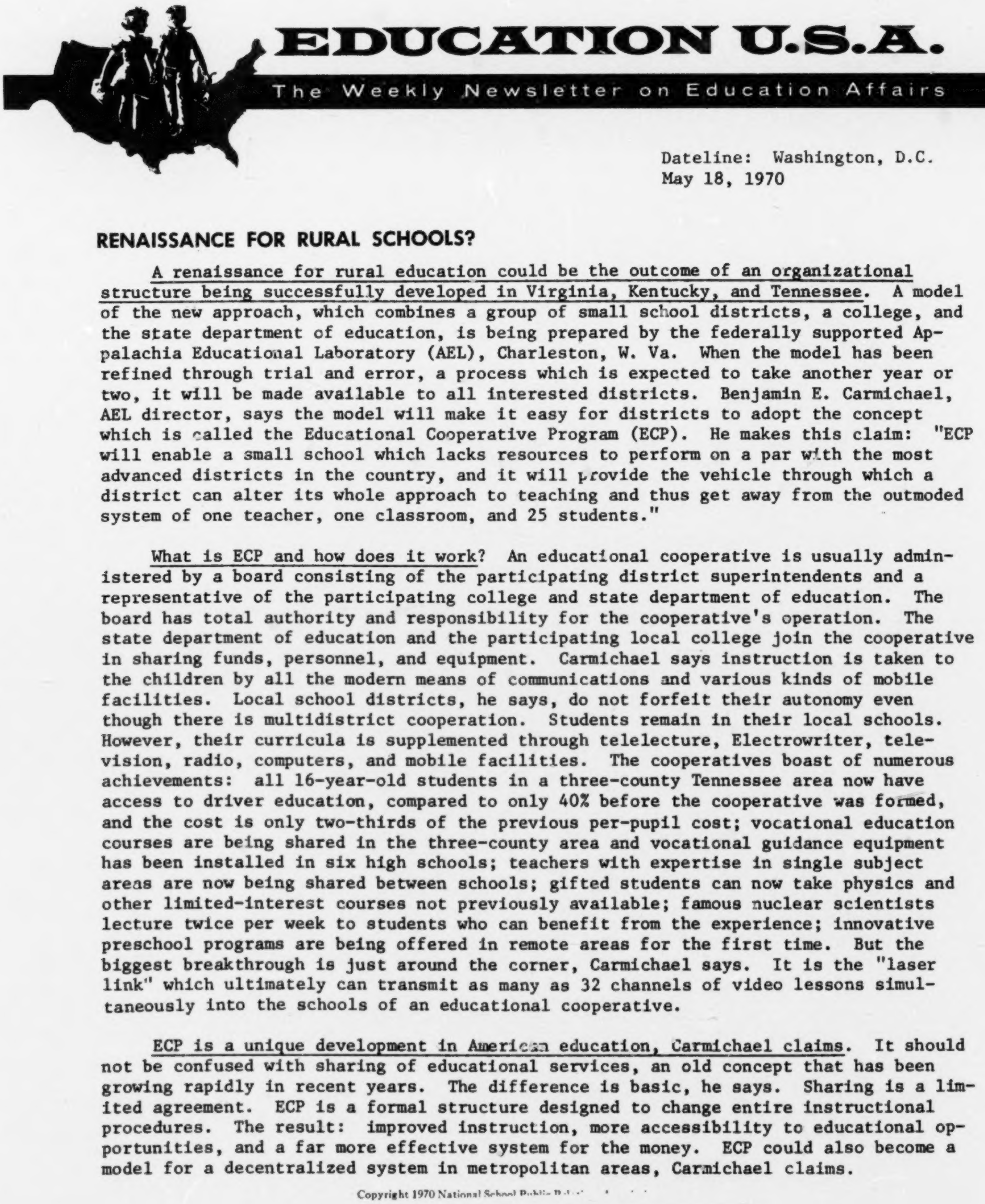

EDUCATION U.S.A.
The Weekly Newsletter on Education Affairs

Dateline: Washington, D.C.
May 18, 1970

RENAISSANCE FOR RURAL SCHOOLS?

A renaissance for rural education could be the outcome of an organizational structure being successfully developed in Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. A model of the new approach, which combines a group of small school districts, a college, and the state department of education, is being prepared by the federally supported Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL), Charleston, W. Va. When the model has been refined through trial and error, a process which is expected to take another year or two, it will be made available to all interested districts. Benjamin E. Carmichael, AEL director, says the model will make it easy for districts to adopt the concept which is called the Educational Cooperative Program (ECP). He makes this claim: "ECP will enable a small school which lacks resources to perform on a par with the most advanced districts in the country, and it will provide the vehicle through which a district can alter its whole approach to teaching and thus get away from the outmoded system of one teacher, one classroom, and 25 students."

What is ECP and how does it work? An educational cooperative is usually administered by a board consisting of the participating district superintendents and a representative of the participating college and state department of education. The board has total authority and responsibility for the cooperative's operation. The state department of education and the participating local college join the cooperative in sharing funds, personnel, and equipment. Carmichael says instruction is taken to the children by all the modern means of communications and various kinds of mobile facilities. Local school districts, he says, do not forfeit their autonomy even though there is multidistrict cooperation. Students remain in their local schools. However, their curricula is supplemented through telelecture, Electrowriter, television, radio, computers, and mobile facilities. The cooperatives boast of numerous achievements: all 16-year-old students in a three-county Tennessee area now have access to driver education, compared to only 40% before the cooperative was formed, and the cost is only two-thirds of the previous per-pupil cost; vocational education courses are being shared in the three-county area and vocational guidance equipment has been installed in six high schools; teachers with expertise in single subject areas are now being shared between schools; gifted students can now take physics and other limited-interest courses not previously available; famous nuclear scientists lecture twice per week to students who can benefit from the experience; innovative preschool programs are being offered in remote areas for the first time. But the biggest breakthrough is just around the corner, Carmichael says. It is the "laser link" which ultimately can transmit as many as 32 channels of video lessons simultaneously into the schools of an educational cooperative.

ECP is a unique development in American education, Carmichael claims. It should not be confused with sharing of educational services, an old concept that has been growing rapidly in recent years. The difference is basic, he says. Sharing is a limited agreement. ECP is a formal structure designed to change entire instructional procedures. The result: improved instruction, more accessibility to educational opportunities, and a far more effective system for the money. ECP could also become a model for a decentralized system in metropolitan areas, Carmichael claims.

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Figure 1. Explanation of the Educational Cooperative. Reprinted by permission.

when a local group of interested citizens began meeting regularly to discuss ways of supporting the area's faltering economy. The group, first organized as the Lee-Norton-Wise-Scott Redevelopment Authority, later became the LENOWISCO Planning District Commission (1969). The DILENOWISCO Educational Cooperative was formed in basically the same region served by the LENOWISCO Planning District Commission (12). As with some other voluntary educational cooperatives, DILENOWISCO may owe much of its success to the basis for regional cooperation prior to its formation. Now DILENOWISCO is assisting the ARC in the development of a second cooperative in southern Virginia.

Pennsylvania

The new cooperative activities (the Educational Development Center (EDC) and the Regional Cooperative Data Center (RCDC)) in Greene, Fayette, and Washington Counties in southwestern Pennsylvania are located in the area served by the Regional Instructional Materials Center (RIMC) since 1960. Although not all districts in the region belong to the RIMC, a large enough number of districts do so that the RIMC could be said to encompass the same geographic areas as the two newer educational cooperative activites (EDC and RCMC) in the three counties. This region is also served by two school study councils: the Pennsylvania School Study Council and the Tri-State Study Council. The interest in cooperation generated by these councils should help the cooperative and the newly-mandated Intermediate Unit expand and develop in the area (14).

Tennessee

The Tennessee Appalachia Educational Cooperative (TAEC) was established in eastern Tennessee in an area served by a school study council for 15 years prior to the development of the cooperative. This voluntary cooperative is not part of the state's structure of education. Impetus for development of the cooperative came about from local leaders in three counties that make up the cooperative. (7: 11) After the idea of cooperating brought the people together, it was relatively easy to move to a formal structure for the educational cooperative. The AEL and the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) both provided direction and assistance during the formative stages of TAEC development. With TAEC serving as a demonstration area, at least three other regional education agencies are in the formative stages in eastern Tennessee.

New York State

The school study council movement, initiated in 1942 in New York State, and was based upon Paul Mort's concept of "pool and share." One of the most successful cooperative ideas, the Board of Cooperative Educational Services (BOCES), was formally instituted in New York State and has been operational since 1948. Although BOCES is legitimated by the

State, local districts can buy some services and not participate in others. Widespread existence of study councils in New York State supports the BOCES concept and fosters the grass roots concept of cooperation.

The list could continue, but the major point is that cooperatives appear to have the best chance for success where voluntary kinds of educational cooperation have been operating.

III. GOVERNANCE AND STRUCTURE FOR VOLUNTARY COOPERATIVES

The voluntary cooperative, although larger than a single district and serving a region, may be thought of as below the local level in terms of control. The traditional "chain of command" goes from the state to a formal "intermediate unit" to a local district, and, finally, voluntarily, to a voluntary cooperative. Thus, the voluntary cooperative is, although larger, controlled by constituents. Figure 2 depicts this relationship, including some of the useful and usual committees.

Structures of the boards of control for voluntary cooperatives differ. In some voluntary cooperatives the board is composed of lay persons elected from local boards of education; in other cases, boards are composed according to some combination of representation. Combinations found in voluntary cooperatives are represented in the following:

VOLUNTARY COOPERATIVE GOVERNING BOARD MEMBERSHIP

Voting Members	Advisory Members
Superintendents (or their representatives)	-------
Superintendents	Higher Education, State Education Agency (SEA)
Superintendents, Local Board representatives	Higher Education, SEA, other agency
Superintendents, Higher Education	SEA
Superintendents, Higher Education, State Education Agency	Industry and other agencies
Superintendents, SEA, Higher Education	-------
Superintendents, Higher Education, Industry and/or other Agencies	SEA or none
Superintendents, Industry, and/or other Agencies	-------
Local Board Representatives	Superintendents, SEA, Higher Education, other Agencies
Local and Intermediate Superintendents, Higher Education, Other Professional Organizations	-------

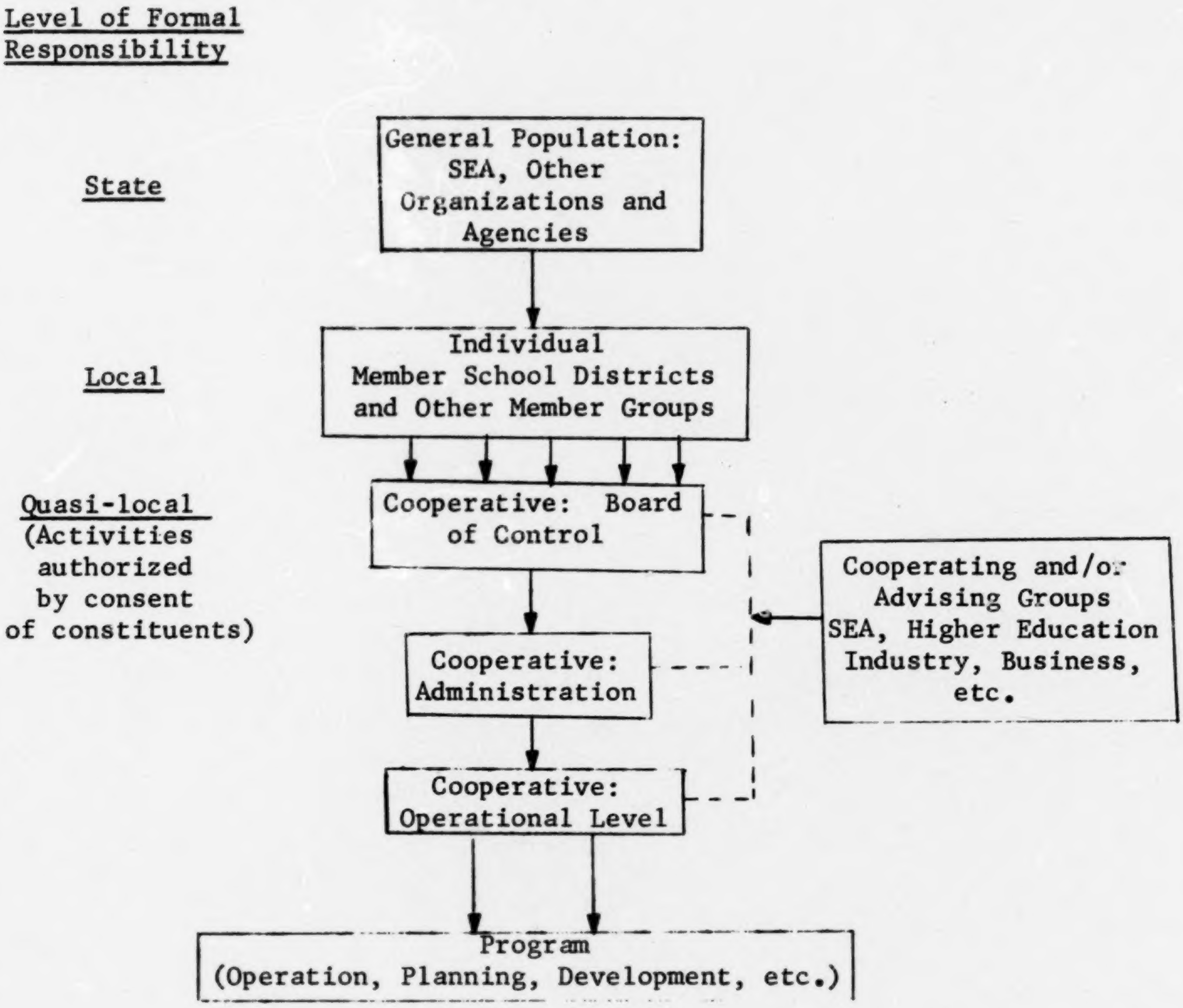
Level of Formal Responsibility
State
Local
Quasi-local
(Activities authorized by consent of constituents)
General Population: SEA, Other Organizations and Agencies
Individual Member School Districts and Other Member Groups
Cooperative: Board of Control
Cooperative: Administration
Cooperative: Operational Level
Cooperating and/or Advising Groups SEA, Higher Education Industry, Business, etc.
Program
(Operation, Planning, Development, etc.)

Figure 2

Skeleton Outline of Normal Organization of Voluntary Educational Cooperatives

Within the voluntary cooperatives assisted by the AEL there are variations in governance. The DILENOWISCO Cooperative has a governing board with five voting members and a number of non-voting members. Figure 3 presents a diagram of DILENOWISCO's organization, the following explains the governance structure:

> Each participating school division is entitled to a voting representative selected from its school board to serve on the DILENOWISCO Board. Ex officio members of the DILENOWISCO Board are the five superintendents and representatives from Clinch Valley College, the University of Virginia, the Virginia State Board of Education, and the Appalachia Educational Laboratory.
>
> The DILENOWISCO Educational Cooperative Board has total authority and responsibility for the operation of the Cooperative. This includes decisions on the location and supervision of programs. The Board assumes authority for personnel; expenditure of funds; ownership of property, which, of course, is joint ownership; policy-making; joint responsibility for success and liability and any other consideration of that nature.
>
> Although the length of time a voting member serves has not been determined, the by-laws stipulate that when a board member ceases to be connected with the local board he represents, his membership on the DILENOWISCO board also ceases. (12: 9)

The Board of Control of the Tennessee Appalachia Educational Cooperative (TAEC), Oak Ridge, Tennessee, has representatives from the seven local schools (superintendents), higher education, and the Tennessee State Department of Education with voting responsibilities; AEL has a non-voting member.

In the Clinch-Powell cooperative just initiating activity in northeastern Tennessee each member district has its superintendent and one local board member with voting rights on the governing board; higher education and the SEA serve as ex officio members.

The Kentucky Appalachia Cooperative Field Activity with 11 school systems has a board that follows the formal pattern of DILENOWISCO except that only the 11 superintendents are designated as voting members. The board also consists of ex officio non-voting members from AEL, the SEA, and the Cooperative staff. Functionally, other administrators attend board meetings with the superintendents and, on some occasions, represent the superintendents.

The cooperative activities in Washington, Greene, and Fayette Counties in southwestern Pennsylvania have similar formal forms of governance (depending upon the major purposes of the cooperative activity). In each case, boards include representation from local schools, the Pennsylvania Department of Public Education, and higher education. The Regional Instructional Materials Center (RIMC) is primarily a service

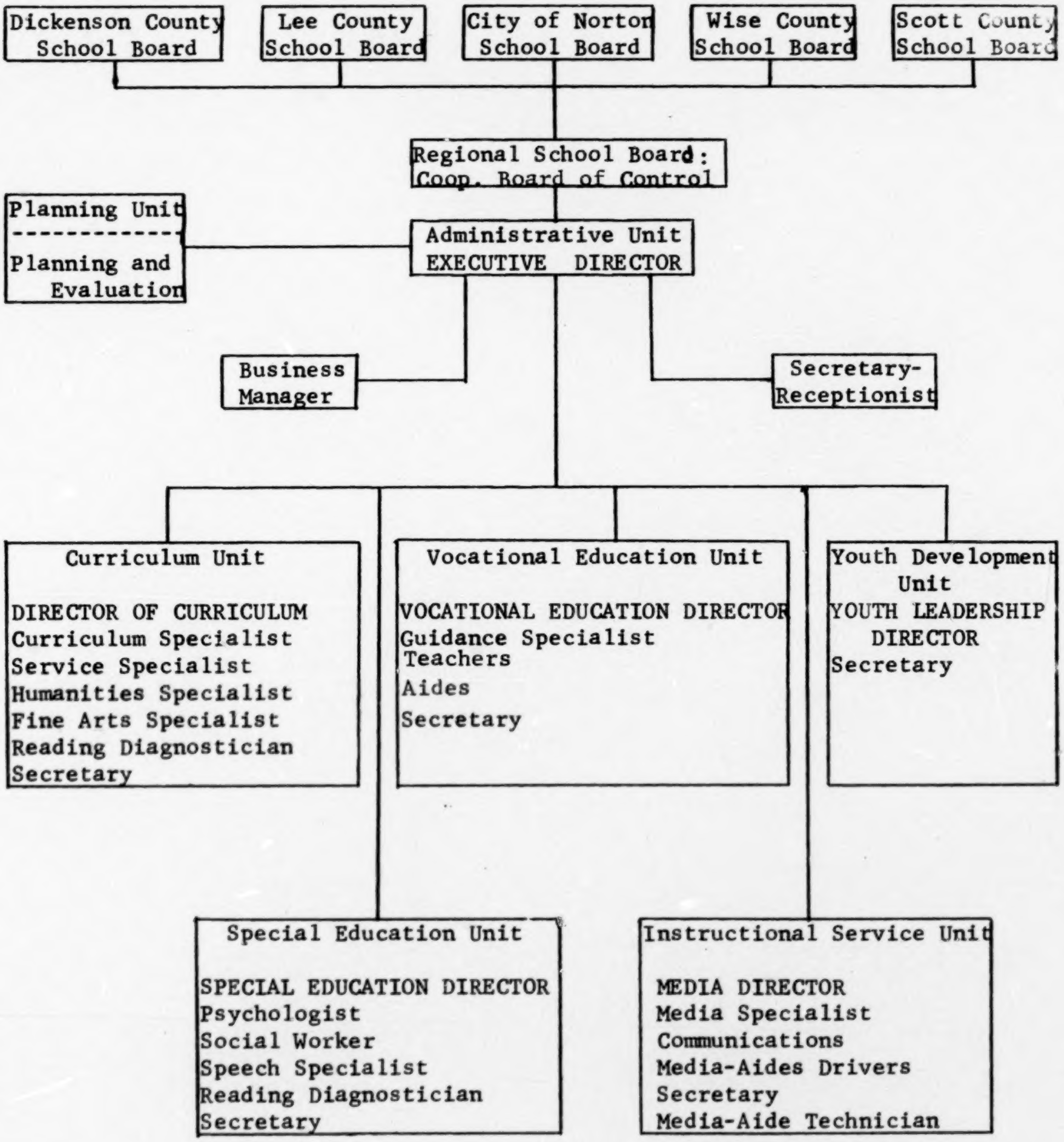
Dickenson County School Board
Lee County School Board
City of Norton School Board
Wise County School Board
Scott County School Board
Regional School Board: Coop. Board of Control
Planning Unit
Planning and Evaluation
Administrative Unit
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
Business Manager
Secretary-Receptionist
Curriculum Unit
DIRECTOR OF CURRICULUM
Curriculum Specialist
Service Specialist
Humanities Specialist
Fine Arts Specialist
Reading Diagnostician
Secretary
Vocational Education Unit
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR
Guidance Specialist
Teachers
Aides
Secretary
Youth Development Unit
YOUTH LEADERSHIP DIRECTOR
Secretary
Special Education Unit
SPECIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR
Psychologist
Social Worker
Speech Specialist
Reading Diagnostician
Secretary
Instructional Service Unit
MEDIA DIRECTOR
Media Specialist
Communications
Media-Aides Drivers
Secretary
Media-Aide Technician

Figure 3. Organizational Chart for DILENOWISCO Educational Cooperative (1970) Showing Governance, Programs, and Personnel.

agency for local schools. Its governing board is composed of all county board of education members from its three-county area. The Education Development Center (EDC) provides developmental and inservice activity, and attempts to "marry" the interests of local schools and higher education and to coordinate the planning, development, application, and operation of special projects for all schools of the area. (When federal funds are involved, this includes nonpublic schools.) The EDC policy board--primarily a professional board--includes superintendents from local schools and county units, the State college (dean and president), nonpublic schools, and the Department of Public Education. The Regional Cooperative Data Center (RCDC) has a professional board of control which includes superintendents from participating districts and representation from the local state college. The board of directors for Pennsylvania's new Intermediate Unit will be composed of 13 members elected from local boards of education. Thus, a variety of structures for governance exists for educational cooperatives even in the same region.

The flexibility of governance structures allows each cooperative to tailor a board of control to fit its own needs. The boards serve as vehicles for involving diverse groups in the policy-making function of the organization. The board also serves a communication and coordination function by bringing representatives of higher education, local schools, SEA, and other groups together on a planned basis. Thus, voluntary cooperatives' flexibility provides for their individual needs.

IV. FINANCING FOR COOPERATIVES

There are a number of reasons for the development of cooperatives. For one thing, the contribution of small amounts of money from each of several local districts provides a large enough resource pool that local districts can engage in some research and developmental activities which otherwise might be prohibitive for a single district. The contribution of funds from several sources allows the cooperative to engage in planning activities and to develop new programs which can be pilot-tested at no heavy burden to any single school unit. This allows the cooperative to innovate and to assume a "risk-taker" role in educational development. With the financial restrictions of many districts, this is a critical role for the cooperative.

> The educational cooperative can be and ought to be the risk taker--the innovator. People are afraid to innovate because they don't want to be blamed for failure. . . . By innovating cooperatively, the risk of failure is eliminated. (12: 26)

Secondly, some districts have been restricted in obtaining the diverse staff needed to operate schools in today's complex society due to financial restrictions. This is especially true of small rural schools where income is depressed due to the lack of a tax base large enough to provide more than a minimal level of support, and partly due to outmoded forms of political control.

> Small systems will need to come together because they are unable to obtain adequate staff members for leadership. . . . You will find that the tax structure cannot adequately support the school systems. The political structure actually hinders education. (12: 26)

The DILENOWISCO cooperative obtained funds for planning and initial operation when local member districts waived their rights to develop and submit proposals for federal funding and applied for these funds on a regional basis. Their funds come from three sources: ESEA III, ESEA IV, and EPDA B-2. Local districts contributed by freely releasing personnel for cooperative activity and by donating facilities for the cooperative. DILOWISCO presently faces a problem of obtaining matching funds when the local districts join for cooperation. A Virginia statute allows the state only to match monies of local school divisions; no provision is made for matching on a regional basis (12: 10). This lack of provision for matching funds actually hinders development of regional agencies. The director of DILENOWISCO explains:

> QUESTION: Is there a legal problem involved in the sharing of monies across school district lines? (12: 28)
>
> ANSWER: There is a penalty. At the present time the State of Virginia will match money that the school districts keep at home; but if the school divisions feed it into regional programs, there is no mechanism for the State to match it, so the dollar doesn't go as far. (12: 29)
>
> QUESTION: Do you consider this penalty a real problem?
>
> ANSWER: Definitely; unless something is done it will be a problem for the future. If I were one of these superintendents, I'd want to keep my money at home if I could get 60 cents for every 40 cents I put up. It would have to be a tremendous regional program in order for me to put our 40 cents on a regional program and not get any to match it.
>
> QUESTION: How much would each school district have to contribute on an annual basis to keep DILENOWSICO going?
>
> ANSWER: Right now, in order to keep a basic program going, it would amount to about $5.00 per child. If we can get some matching formula with the State, it could be something like $2.00 per child local funds, $3.00 per child state funds.

QUESTION: If the school divisions say, "No, we are not going to put our money into DILENOWISCO," what happens then?

ANSWER: Unless we get some private foundation funds or other federal-type program, we'd just all go home. (12: 29)

The last statement clearly tells the story of the voluntary cooperative--if the cooperative does not serve its constituents, it is out of business; it must be seen as useful and economically feasible.

The Educational Development Center (EDC) serving Washington, Greene, and Fayette Counties in Pennsylvania initiated activity in a somewhat similar manner. The EDC, one of several cooperative activities serving a three-county area, is provided staff by constituent agencies--a sizeable contribution. Persons are either assigned full-time to EDC or given released time from other responsibilities to work for EDC on special assignments. All EDC programs and projects are funded from external sources (federal, state, and foundation). A major activity of EDC is development of projects for funding.

Various procedures are used to determine local cash contributions to voluntary cooperatives: fixed fees plus a formula contribution, ADA or ADM, a percent of valuation of local district property, a fee per professional staff members, and combinations of these. In-kind contributions (personnel on loan, equipment, materials, facilities, etc.) make up a major source of support for voluntary cooperatives.

> Since many of the school districts in the rural areas are too small for effective and efficient operations, activities at the cooperative level will provide a better return for the dollar while at the same time providing wider educational opportunities.

Such a statement was often repeated in interviews and found in writings about cooperatives. Presently, there are few "hard" data to substantiate this, especially data relative to cost benefits of cooperatives. In theory, it seems to be true and the next few years should provide information on this point.

With the AEL providing strong leadership in the development of voluntary cooperatives in the Appalachia region and with a program at the Northwest Regional Laboratory in Portland, Oregon, aimed at development of rural shared services, at least two national education laboratories have programs for getting local school districts together to provide better educational opportunity and better economic return in programs where the population density makes programs unreasonably costly and, therefore, prohibitive in many cases. In such instances, the cost-effectiveness question may be inappropriate since without some form of cooperation a single district would not have enough pupils or resources even to consider providing the particular service.

Alternatives have been proposed for economically expanding some limited services where they already exist. A dramatic example of expanding and changing a program can be found in driver education where technology and cooperation have united to show new (and perhaps better) ways of program operation. By combining driver simulators, mobile facilities, specially-constructed driving ranges in central locations, and traditional on-the-road procedures, the typically expensive driver education programs can become less expensive per pupil through cooperative efforts. (See Figure 4.)

In New York State the program cost for the Boards of Cooperative Education Services are recovered on a formula from the districts that share in the programs. Administrative expenses for the programs are spread among all districts that are members of the BOCES. If each district operated its own program, there would be a duplication cost in each district for administration. Thus, deductively, the BOCES structure would seem to provide a more efficient procedure for program operation. (Detail of BOCES is presented in Chapter II.)

With increasing state control of various federal programs, a group of local systems has more "muscle" or "clout" in petitioning for acceptance of their programs than single district. The influx of federal funds for Title III, ESEA, and EPDA (especially Part B-2) has had some effect upon the development of voluntary cooperatives. Also, use of Title V, ESEA, funds for local administrative improvement has encouraged multi-district planning activities. More importantly, though, evaluation of federally supported programs should start providing data relative to the cost-efficiency of cooperatives in relation to other kinds of operations; some state legislative acts relative to cooperatives now require periodic evaluation of cooperative organizations and programs. These evaluations should furnish data on economics of cooperation.

V. METROPOLITAN COOPERATION*

Recently, major problems have beset large urban school districts, suggesting that size alone does not seem to solve problems of providing educational opportunity. Cooperative action may offer one avenue of assistance. Metropolitan school district cooperation has recently been the subject of much increased study. Although the scope of this report

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*Five major studies of metropolitan cooperation were reviewed for this study: Metropolitan School District Cooperation (4); Metropolitan Sharing (23); Citizen Attitudes Toward Metropolitan Sharing (24); Metropolitanism: Its Challenge to Education (25); and Target: The Three E's--Efficiency of Organization, Equity of Financing, and Equality of Educational Opportunity (26). These studies are listed in the references to this chapter; a more detailed bibliography of metropolitan cooperation was also compiled as part of this study.

Program Type	Description	Organization and Operation	Major Cost Items
Two-Phase (Traditional)	Student obtains 30 hours of classroom instruction and 6 hours of 1-to-1 behind the wheel instruction in real traffic situations.	Each teacher, school, and system operate semi-autonomously. The teacher, auto, and basic equipment and materials are available to students in one school. One teacher serves 90 pupils per year teaching 5 periods daily.	Salary (av.) $7,000 Instructional Equipment 500 Insurance 190 Auto Expenses 500 TOTAL $8,190 Cost per Pupil $ 91
Three-Phase	Student obtains 30 hours of classroom instruction, 12 hours of simulated driving instruction, and 3 hours of 1-to-1 behind the wheel instruction in real traffic situations.	Each teacher, school, and system operate separately in most situations. The teacher, auto, permanently installed simulators, and other basic equipment and materials are available in one school. One teacher serves 160 pupils per year by teaching 5 periods daily.	Salary (av.) $7,000 Instructional Equipment 500 Insurance 150 Auto Expenses 350 Simulators (1/10 Proration of $30,000) 3,000 Technical Services 1,000 TOTAL $12,000 Cost per Pupil $ 75

Figure 4.
Driver Education Programming Alternatives.

Program Type	Description	Organization and Operation	Major Cost Items	*	**
Four-Phase (Cooperative)	Student obtains 30 hours of classroom instruction, 8 hours of simulated driving instruction, 6 hours of behind-the-wheel instruction on a multi-auto range, and 1 hour of 1-to-1 instruction behind the wheel of automobile in real traffic situations.	Several schools and school systems jointly establish a cooperative program, contribute to its support for the acquisition of personnel, simulators in mobile vans, construction of multi-auto ranges, and basic equipment and materials. The personnel equipment, and facilities belong to all schools and school systems. A Teacher serves 300-320 students per year by teaching five periods daily.	Salaries(5)	$35,000	$ 7,000
			Instructional	5,000	1,000
			Auto Ins.(32)	4,000	800
			Range Construction (1/10) proration)	5,000	1,000
			Mobile Van 16 Sim. (1/10) proration	4,000	800
			Insurance-Van	1,000	200
			Transportation Van	1,000	200
			Auto Expense	8,000	1,600
			Other Costs	2,000	400
			Total		$13,000
			Cost Per Pupil		$43.33

*Five schools.

**One school.

Figure 4 (Continued)

is not such that it can include metropolitan cooperation in detail, it must be mentioned. From the records reviewed, it seems that most metropolitan cooperation has not yet developed into the formal, structured variety included in this study. Guidelines for establishing metropolitan sharing have been identified (4: 38-41).

> A study of the recommendations of the . . . (reports) to the Ohio Assembly revealed that the feasibility of a metropolitan-wide educational government is based upon at least five important propositions. Such an arrangement is feasible:
>
> 1. When coordination of a function over the area is essential to effective service or control in any part of the area.
>
> 2. When it is desirable to apply the ability-to-pay theory of taxation to the areas as a whole; instead of allowing each part to support its own activities at whatever level its own economic base will allow.
>
> 3. When services can be supplied more efficiently through large-scale operations and when the advantages of large-scale operations are desired.
>
> 4. When it is necessary in order to assure citizens a voice in decisions that affect them at their places of work and recreation as well as at their places of residence.
>
> 5. When the "average citizen"--and this might be applied to school superintendents as well--feels a compelling need or an urgency for a major restructuring of the educational governmental pattern of his area.
>
> The implication that inter-school district cooperation is necessary for the solution of most metropolitan-wide education problems should seem clear at this point. . . . If the organizational pattern of several independent school districts cooperating informally to solve common educational and social problems fails to meet the challenge and provide acceptable solutions, then the responsible leadership will seek new patterns and means for solutions. If metropolitan-wide educational government replaces independent districts as an organizational pattern, it too will require a high degree of cooperation in order to succeed.
>
> . . . The most powerful role of the metropolitan educational district would be the financial role of procuring and allocating school support. Perhaps such an organizational pattern would also enable a school district to procure better teachers and to improve instruction.

> In summary, little attention has been paid to inter-school district relationships within a metropolitan area; however, crucial educational and social problems have reversed this trend. . . . The need for cooperation to solve these crucial social and educational problems has been made explicit in some studies and implicit in others. . . .
>
> In 1962, Havighurst made a modest survey of a sample of tandard etropolitan tatistical reas (SMSA) to find out how much cooperation existed among school districts within a metropolitan area and how much planning there was for future cooperation. He found that . . . in the great majority of situations there was no cooperation among school districts in a metropolitan area, although a basis for such cooperation existed in several areas where there were regional school administrators' associations. Generally, results of the survey were negative and may be taken to indicate that there was not much actual area-wide cooperation. (emphasis added)
>
> There are two types of cooperation among school districts--formal and informal. Formal relationships are those of contractual nature, whereby the participants negotiate and apportion shares of costs and responsibilities for providing a particular service to some extent. Informal relationships are for the most part talking relationships. . . . Informal relationships tend to be the most commonly used. This type of relationship is popular because it is relatively easy to put into operation and there is little or no financial involvement.
>
> It was found in this study that informality is the chief characteristic of the relationships among districts as opposed to structured, formal mechanisms. It seems that the "professionalization" of school administrators provides the best explanation for the cooperation which exists. The "fraternalism" among administrators lends to the districts' involvement in cooperative activities. (emphasis added)

A survey of school leaders concerning metropolitan sharing in Erie and Niagra Counties of New York showed that both formal and informal cooperation was extensive. Many school districts in Erie County were members of the BOCES structure which accounted for most of the formal sharing in most categories except inservice training for non-instructional personnel. This training was conducted by the Western New York School Study Council. Sharing of facilities, services, and even personnel was generally accepted in the light of economy and efficiency afforded. Opposition to sharing seemed to center on sharing of students, particularly where the students involved were from different social and economic classes. However, there was much sharing of pupils largely in special and vocational education.(23)

A later survey of citizen attitudes showed general support for cooperative school programs aimed at efficiency and economy and strong suburban opposition from the "better" districts to pupil sharing to reduce educational inequalities. (24)

In the last 20 years, large city-county political units have met with notable successes in developing total metropolitan governmental structures--including education--in at least two locations (Nashville-Davidson, Tennessee, and Miami-Dade, Florida) (27: 217). Other mergers have occurred, but local politicians have often not included education among the functions that the streamlined governmental structure would serve (27: 218).

Cunningham, reporting on a study he and others conducted, describes the Louisville-Jefferson County, Kentucky, organization (28). The design for the educational organization called for (1) the creation of a metropolitan educational district, (2) establishment of several local community, semi-independent subdistricts with boards of education and limited taxing power, and (3) implementation of the plan through a charter process resulting in a formal metropolitan education district (28: 109-110). This expanded district would then have five major functions described as (1) finance, (2) school construction, (3) research and planning, (4) operation of special education programs, and (5) operation of centralized business and administrative functions (e.g., purchasing, data processing, transportation, instructional materials center, ETV). (28: 11-112)

Hooker, Mueller, and Davis provide a discussion of cooperation in a metropolitan area as conducted by the Education Research and Development Council of the Twin Cities Metropolitan Area, Incorporated (29). Educational cooperation in metropolitan areas also has been a major concern of school study councils located in the areas (e.g., Metropolitan School Study Council, Genesee Valley School Development Council, Western New York School Development Council). This is a logical function for these confederations of school districts since they provide a single locus for coordination with other agencies.

While total metropolitan governmental structures really do not qualify as educational cooperatives (the process is more similar to centralization, the Louisville-Jefferson County example includes all of the elements of the educational cooperative concept.

Thus, it can be concluded that formal metropolitan educational cooperation is still in its infancy except in select instances (e.g., Minneapolis-St. Paul through the ERDC; St. Louis area; Buffalo; Kansas City, Missouri-Kansas Metropolitan area; Boston) in situations of total metropolitan government, and in some major urban systems that are either decentralized or in the process of decentralization. The bulk of cooperative activities are informal.

VI. A REVIEW OF SELECTED COOPERATIVES

Some aspects of voluntary cooperation in education in Kentucky, Pennsylvania, New York, Missouri, Virginia, and Tennessee have already been cited in this chapter and used as examples in prior sections. Material in this section is chosen to demonstrate important elements and trends of voluntary cooperation in education; no attempt has been made to do an exhaustive review of cooperatives in the states represented.

Educational Cooperation: Minnesota

The Educational Research and Development Councils (ERDC's) are a form of voluntary educational cooperative in the State of Minnesota. At present there are six ERDC's--the Northeast, Northwest, Central, Southwestern, Southern, and Twin Cities--providing service to the majority of (but not all) school districts in Minnesota.

The Minnesota Joint Exercise of Powers Act allows two or more school districts to join and incorporate. The unit thus formed is empowered to spend money for anything that a single school unit could do individually. Some units formed under the Joint Exercise of Powers Act have received special legislation so that they can levy taxes. Some, but not all, ERDC's have been established under the Joint Exercise of Powers Act. Within the geographic cooperative area of the ERDC, single purpose cooperative activities are being developed to meet specific needs. For example, within the seven-county area of the ERDC of the Twin Cities there have already been established three multi-county local district vocational units.

The ERDC of the Twin Cities, formed in August, 1963, services a seven-county area including 47 constituent school districts; 44 of the 47 schools within the seven-county area are members of the ERDC. The seven-county area boundary for the ERDC was set in the ERDC constitution and was determined by the organization. (29, 30, 31, 32)

The Central Minnesota Educational Research and Development Council (CMERDC) is a voluntary cooperative organization of public and non-public school districts and three colleges located in a 16-county area of central Minnesota. The CMERDC, governed by a board of directors and administered by an executive secretary, has 60 member schools with approximately 6,000 teachers and administrators and 112,000 students.

The CMERDC works to promote cooperative leadership as a vehicle for providing supplementary services, exemplary educational practices, demonstrations, and for supporting innovative educational research and developmental projects initiated by the staff of the council member schools.

Financing of the ERDC is basically the same throughout the State. For example, the CMERDC, like the ERDC of the Twin Cities, is supported by a per pupil membership fee, an ESEA III grant, and by income from services and publications.

The ease with which school districts can enter into cooperative arrangements in Minnesota has caused a proliferation of cooperative activities. Due to this proliferation and to school district satisfaction with cooperative activities, some districts belong to several cooperatives. It has been proposed that the state be divided in 11 planning districts to be called Minnesota Educational Service Agencies (MESA). In some cases, the MESA will follow boundaries established by the ERDC's. One purpose of MESA will be to coordinate the wide variety of cooperative activities and to allow some reasonable control and direction of cooperative activities.*

The MESA is, in effect, an outgrowth of local interest in and satisfaction with voluntary cooperatives. The State Education Agency is reacting to the need for coordination which has arisen from local grass roots interest in cooperating and, as such, is not (strictly speaking) imposing a structure upon local districts. The MESA will serve many of the same functions that the new intermediate unit serves in other states.

Minnesota also provides an example of a voluntary educational cooperative that was developed as a result of local interest in continuing a program initiated under an ESEA Title III operational grant. After the operational grant terminated, local school districts in a 10-county area voted to support the Edu-cultural Service Center, the former Title III project, with an annual membership fee plus an assessment of 50 cents per pupil. Activities of the Title III project were scaled down to fit the new budget, but the cooperative effort provided the impetus for continuation of some elements of the project.

Voluntary Cooperative Activity in Connecticut

Several voluntary educational cooperative activities exist in Connecticut. One of these, the Area Cooperative Educational Service (ACES), has as its main stated purpose:

> . . . to secure and to share resources for providing educational services which can be provided more effectively and efficiently on a voluntary cooperative area basis than by educational units operating individually. (33: 1)

---

*It is possible that the development of MESA will cause the decline and/or disappearance of the ERDC. On the other hand, the ERDC might continue as an organization that would undertake the more "high-risk" ventures in research and development or be coopted by MESA.

Membership is open to any school district within a predetermined area. Following the voluntary cooperative pattern, ACES is not a hierarchial level in the state educational organization, but is an organization controlled by and responsible to its constituent members. The ACES is governed by a nine-member executive committee. The nine members, whose three-year terms are overlapping, serve as the governing body for regular operations of the cooperative.

An institution or school district is accepted into membership of the cooperative by action of the governing board and pays a membership fee as annually voted by the membership. For 1970-71 the fee was $2.00 per professional staff member of the member institution.

The cooperative studies problems of concern to some or all members and reviews their feasibility for area projects. The cooperative prepares proposals and seeks sources to secure the necessary funding for projects. The cooperative also establishes and operates programs and services approved by the governing body and/or the membership as well as providing communication and access to a variety of resources. Major programs and/or components for this cooperative (1970-71) are: a communications center; a media center (similar to regional instructional materials center); inservice training programs; a service center for such activities as cooperative purchasing, student-teacher placement; and writing federal proposals. Direct services to children include innovative or experimental programs in special education for gifted students or for children with learning disabilities and specially equipped transportation facilities. (33: 1,2)

The Area Cooperative Educational Services Center is a voluntary cooperative and the services which it provides are typical of many voluntary cooperatives. The form of governance and the form of providing fees for membership also reflect a typical voluntary cooperative approach.

School study councils have sometimes formed the basis for the development of regional Title III centers as well as for voluntary cooperation outside the study council structure. An example of such an operation is the programs of the Capital Region Education Council, a voluntary organization composed of representatives of boards of education from throughout the greater Hartford, Connecticut area (34). The council obtains funds from local, state, federal, and private sources. It provides services under the direction of a board of directors composed of nine local boards of education members elected from the 28 local boards of education represented in the council. A major project of the council is METRO, a metropolitan effort toward regional equal educational opportunity, funded under Title III of ESEA. (35) The compatible operation of a school study council type organization and of a regional Title III project demonstrates that cooperative activities tend to compliment one another in education.

Northwest Connecticut has a regional service agency entitled the Regional School Service Center. The regional school board, with a superintendent as its executive agent, serves a special function for all the boards of education as the regional school service center. This function of the regional board is distinct from the one it serves as the policy-making body for the regional high school. The service center is seen as a new district; it serves the special needs of six local districts as well as the regional district in charge of the high school. While this organization is unique in Connecticut, it is similar to the intermediate school district since it services a group of towns. This organization was established by permissive legislation. A separate, regional school boards shared-service staff is provided in the area of psychological services, art, music, French, and physical education. (34)

Educational Cooperation: Tennessee

The Little Tennessee Valley Educational Cooperative, currently being formed in southeastern Tennessee, will include three county school systems and four city school systems within the three counties. The board of control will be composed of seven school board members elected from each system and three county court representatives elected by each county to represent fiscal agents when local monies are required. The organization includes a planning commission made up of superintendents, county court members, city council members, State Department of Education representative, higher education representatives, Appalachian Economic Development District representative, and ad hoc representatives from local, state, and federal agencies. Planning is underway for a tri-county, "perimeter" high school, cooperative vocational programs, and cooperative special education projects. Planning for this cooperative resulted from a massive tri-county educational "charrette," a planning and involvement mechanism by which citizens, professional consultants, and government officials and planners identify problems and develop alternative solutions for implementation.

Some aspects of the Tennessee Appalachia Educational Cooperative (TAEC) and the Clinch-Powell Educational Cooperative have been reviewed previously in this chapter as examples of selected characteristics of voluntary cooperatives.

The TAEC has four major program thrusts--inservice education, driver education, vocational activity, and psychological services--besides administration, planning, and developmental activity. During the 1969-70 school year, TAEC provided direct inservice training to 100 administrators and over 400 teachers and 50 paraprofessionals.

A psychological services internship center, a VIEW script program, a driver education project, and pupil exchange for vocational education that served over 9,300 pupils in 1969-70 are other projects operated by TAEC. Under development are an environmental education program, a quasi-laser beam telecommunications delivery system, and initial planning for a media center.

Educational Cooperation: Missouri

The Cooperating School Districts of the St. Louis Suburban Area is a voluntary cooperation of 29 school districts. One of the oldest cooperative activities identified in this study, this organization began in 1928. The organization is highly structured with a formal committee system and a governing executive committee composed of member superintendents and board members. The organization has both standing and ad hoc committees which direct its operations. By far the largest proportion of the cooperative budget supports communications components, which include audiovisual activities and educational television, and maintain the audiovisual center. While its major focus relates to audiovisual services and educational television, the organization does engage in various other activities. Over the years it has received grants for conducting research activities and for engaging in developmental work, such as a Title III ESEA grant for improvement of social studies curricula.

One interesting thrust of this cooperative pertains to legislation and legal activities. According to the annual report of this organization:

> . . . each year the legislature is in session, committee members arrange for a luncheon between area legislators and school officials to discuss educational issues and proposed legislation. Representatives of this committee have appeared before various legislative groups including the State Tax Study Commission, the Committee for State School Finance, and the Commission on School Reorganization. (6)

The legal and research committee has committed resources to attain legislative and educational goals adopted by the organization at large. Four goals are stated in publications of the organization. (6)

1. To conduct a vigorous campaign designed to inform legislators about the financial crisis confronting public schools.

2. To investigate with state officials the possibility of school districts being direct recipients for additional new revenue collected at the county level and earmarked for schools.

3. To strive for abolishment of statutory and constitutional limitations that place uncommon financial restraints on local school districts.

4. To publicize the state's moral and legal obligation to provide adequate financing for public education.

Besides communicating with area legislators, the committee keeps files of background data on matters of legislative importance as well as retaining an attorney to advise on matters requiring legal opinions and for filing briefs when necessary. (The professional and intense legal interest of this cooperative is noteworthy since few other examples of such strong organized interest in legal and legislative affairs could be found in the study of voluntary educational cooperation.) The organization also works with the juvenile courts to improve communications between the courts and schools to assist the youngster in trouble.

Educational Cooperation: Oregon

Oregon has formal cooperatives in the Intermediate Education Districts (IED). Housed within the Lane County IED is the Oregon Total Information System (OTIS), a statewide voluntary cooperative.

OTIS began in 1968 with a grant from Title III ESEA. Federal support has been phased out as the local districts have begun to provide funds based upon student population and services rendered with a minimum fee of $1.10 and maximum fee of $8.79 per pupil in ADM.

By 1970, OTIS had grown to 45 members from the 28 charter members. Services were varied, but primarily were data processing and computer activities. Some inservice programs, publications, development, and other services were provided.

OTIS is a statewide system providing business services, student services, and school scheduling services to constituents. The staff also provides field services and communication services. Through a network of terminals, member districts have immediate access to the system.

By pooling resources in a cooperative computer system, local schools that singly could not afford (or make reasonable use of) the equipment and services have the benefits of a highly sophisticated and complex information processing system.

Educational Cooperation: Private Schools

One example of voluntary educational cooperation among private schools is the Cleveland Council of Independent Schools (CCIS) (37). The CCIS, an incorporated nonprofit organization governed by a board of trustees, presently includes four independent schools, but could expand to include other independent schools as they are accepted for membership.

During its initial years of operation, CCIS's primary emphasis has been on curriculum and student activities. A business manager attempts to coordinate business and fiscal activities of the independent schools to provide more economic and efficient administrative procedures. The business manager acts as coordinator of business operations, including such things as general accounting, payroll and benefits, purchasing, maintenance, and insurance. Also, CCIS is considering ways to share mobile facilities and other major equipment required to maintain the independent schools's operations.

This organization, quite new to the field of formal cooperation, should provide the economies which independent schools are looking for as well as expanded services, including teacher workshops, library and audiovisual catalogs, and interschool activities.

The four schools that initiated CCIS have not made specific plans for expanding the membership. Other independent schools in the area have been observing the CCIS and have participated on a limited basis in some projects. Possibly, as other independent schools see the benefits of cooperation, they will petition for membership. The cooperative must be attractive to schools; memberships are not mandated.

Educational Cooperative Activity in Georgia: Shared Services*

By 1970 Georgia had eight shared services projects in operation which included 51 school districts, 258 schools, over 5,000 teachers, and served approximately 151,000 pupils. The shared services projects include four to seven local school districts.

The shared services projects are not federally funded; they are supported jointly by the state and by participating school districts. The major stated purpose of the projects is to enable rural counties of Georgia to offer quality education while still retaining local control of schools.

The educational shared services center operation is controlled by a board of directors composed of the superintendents of the constituent school districts. The shared services center receives support from the counties in two ways: (1) each county assigns a position or a teacher to the center and (2) each county contributes cash based on the number of classroom teachers in the county. The shared services center coordinates the sharing of teachers (or positions) already allotted to member districts. Each local system, in essence, exchanges full-time service of one professional (such as a librarian or counselor) who would normally not be used full-time in the classroom for the services of the spectrum of professional consultants thus "pooled" in the service center.

These shared services projects provide four basic kinds of services to schools: (1) direct subject-area services to pupils and teachers; (2) inservice programs to groups of teachers; (3) individual consultation as requested by administrators and instructors; and (4) assistance to the superintendent and his staff in planning and developing educational programs.

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* Detail of the shared services approach has been documented in Rural Shared Services (38), an interpretive study conducted under contract with the USOE by the Northwestern Regional Educational Laboratory and the Northern Montana College. The dissemination projects in Georgia, as well as in Wyoming, Vermont, Montana, and New Mexico, are true shared services, but do not meet all criteria of cooperatives as established in this study.

VII. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND DISCUSSION

The following constitutes a summarization of pertinent aspects of voluntary educational cooperatives. Bibliographical and research references are generally omitted from this summary to retain brevity.

Origin

Voluntary educational cooperatives originated in a number of ways. It would seem that the most prevalent reason for the development of voluntary educational cooperatives was the identification of common needs among school districts and the recognition of some hypothetical economies that could result from cooperatively working toward resolution of the needs. In some cases, the voluntary cooperative came about as a result of a Title III ESEA project which, after losing its operational grant, was seen as worthy of support by the districts previously involved. In other cases, voluntary cooperative activity was an expansion of school study council activity, but with a more specialized focus. Still another source of voluntary educational cooperatives was the encouragement of other social agencies. Two regional educational laboratories (the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory and the Appalachia Educational Laboratory) have been encouraging various forms of educational cooperation, as has the Appalachian Regional Commission, for example. Other agencies concerned with equalization of educational opportunity and with strategies for improving the education of children with special learning abilities or disabilities have also encouraged the development of voluntary cooperatives.

Voluntary cooperatives seem often to be the precursors of more formal arrangements, and voluntary cooperative activities that have been identified as "successful" often give rise to formal cooperatives that are not voluntary (e.g., BOCES in New York State and MESA in Minnesota).

Membership

Membership in voluntary educational cooperatives is varied. In some cases the voluntary cooperative includes only local schools. However, there is a tendency for voluntary cooperatives to recognize the need for involvement of other agencies and include some mix of local schools, higher education, representation from the state education agency, personnel from business and/or industry, and representation from other social agencies such as community action agencies or local economic development districts. Sometimes nonpublic schools are included in the membership; in a few cases other federal agencies (such as an educational laboratory) are included as members. Coordination, communication, and influence of the cooperative seem to be strengthened by the inclusion of other agencies. Membership involvement in cooperatives provides one vehicle for local involvement and for private enterprise partnerships with education.

Organization

Voluntary educational cooperatives are organized in a number of ways, but in general they follow a pattern which would be described as quasi-legal and quasi-hierarchial. They usually are not "recognized" in the traditional line of authority from the State Education Agency to the local district; the common structure has the cooperative controlled by constituent districts, and not as a formal hierarchial level between local school districts and the state. The cooperative comes below the separate local districts in the statewide structure for education.

Governance

Most voluntary educational cooperatives are governed by a board of control representative of the membership. Usually this board is composed of superintendents of the constituent schools and/or elected representatives of the other agencies. In some cases the board is made up of representation from the local boards of education which participate in the voluntary cooperative. It is not unusual to have representatives from other governmental or social agencies serving in an ad hoc or ex officio capacity (sometimes voting and sometimes nonvoting) on the board. Higher education is often included on the board; the SEA less often.

Size and Geographic Area

Although there is considerable variation in the size or geographical area covered by voluntary cooperatives, in most cases the voluntary cooperative includes school districts within an approximate one-hour driving distance from the central point of the cooperative. The number of the "eligible" members in the cooperative would then depend upon the local structure of each area. (In an area where the county unit is the basic unit, there might be only three or four members; in an area where there are many local districts, there might be 40 or 50 members.) In a few cases, the cooperative activities span larger areas (especially where transportation facilities are excellent). One state has suggested that about 100,000 pupils is the minimum size for purposes of regional agencies.

Function

A review of the stated functions of voluntary cooperatives reveals a myriad of functions. The primary function of voluntary cooperatives seems to be to engage in those activities and to provide those services that cannot best be done individually by school districts at the local level. Since the financial position, size, and sophistication of constituent local districts dictate the extent of the activities which can best be done locally, the scope of cooperative activities covers a wide range and varies from location to location. The most prevalent stated function of cooperatives is to provide services to youngsters; the second most frequently stated function is to engage in planning and developmental activities of mutual interest to constituent districts. In some cases there are single purpose cooperatives focusing on media, data systems or regional computer services, or on cooperative purchasing. However, no cooperative was identified that had as its major or exclusive purpose the provision of administrative services for a number of small districts, although the Supervisory Union in New England comes close to that. The Boards of Cooperative Education Services in New York State provide administrative service, but they also provide programmatic services to pupils. A legitimate function of voluntary cooperatives would seem to be to provide a centralized source for purchasing, records, payroll, transportation routing, menu planning, scheduling, and so on, purely as an administrative service that would then be translated into programs through release of time from administrative duties of educational leaders in the local districts. Project OTIS in Oregon appears closest to this function.

Legal Aspects of Voluntary Cooperatives

Voluntary cooperatives are not mandated by law or established by formal regulations. Most exist in states which have permissive legislation that allows, or does not restrict, cooperation of school districts, or in states that have no specific laws about the cooperative activities of school districts. In some states the permissive legislation facilitates school cooperation; in others, the legislation impedes it. For example, in Minnesota there are provisions whereby local schools can cooperate and develop a mechanism for taxation. Local districts in Virginia can be penalized by the aid reimbursement formula for spending local money for regional educational cooperation. Districts generally can contract between and/or among themselves for cooperative action.

Personnel

Where formal boards of control for programs of cooperation exist, it is common to find a director and various assistants or associates with responsibilities for special programs run by the cooperative. The nature of the voluntary cooperative is such that some new roles in education appear to be in demand; these might be described as planners, communicators, program developers, and so on. Considerable external consultant help is used by cooperatives and in some cases the cooperatives provide from their own staffs considerable consultant help to the constituents.

Most cooperatives employ secretarial and nonprofessional help, including technicians, drivers, media specialists, and so on.

Depending upon the state legislation, personnel that work in the cooperatives may not be covered by state retirement plans or other benefits normally available to other educators. In some cases, a single school district will employ personnel and then "loan" them to the cooperative. This technique keeps benefits intact. Without state laws to nurture and assist regional agencies, the cooperatives will continue to have problems in attracting career-minded educators.

Financing

There are diverse methods of financing voluntary educational cooperatives. In many cases, funding for cooperatives comes from a combination of local district funds, state funds, federal funds, and private funds; in other cases, the voluntary cooperative is financed by one or another of those, or by some other means. The sharing of personnel provides an in-kind support for the voluntary cooperative which can be considered part of the local contribution. Some voluntary cooperatives have the option, legally, to seek permission to levy taxes for support of their activities.

A basic funding source for voluntary cooperatives is local school district contributions (either a per pupil or pro rata cost based upon services rendered). Cooperatives also receive funds from other sources such as contracts or grants with state education agencies and/or the USOE, foundation support, donations and/or gifts from industry or business, and in-kind contributions from constituents or other agencies. Some cooperatives receive income from sales of publications and/or services.

The procedure for obtaining local funds varies. Some usual procedures are: an assessment per professional employee; an assessment per pupil; an assessment per pupil for specific services; and a flat fee. There are examples of voluntary cooperatives where business and industrial concerns contribute up to 50 percent of the operating budget. A less common form of financing includes an assessment per set unit of assessed valuation in the district. Some local districts in cooperatives have given up their individual prerogatives to apply for special and/or federal programs and jointly or through the voluntary cooperative make application for these programs. This relinquishing of prerogatives is often accompanied by a sharing of personnel to initiate the activity and then the employment of some permanent staff as budgeted in the projects obtained through this process.

In the voluntary cooperatives sponsored by the Appalachia Educational Laboratory (AEL) there has been support both from the AEL and from the Appalachian Regional Commission (ARC). This ARC support, however, is short-term and must be applied for. It has taken the form of funds for planning and for development.

Local districts can each set aside a small percentage of their annual budgets to be earmarked for cooperative activities, and the pooling of this amount by each district can provide an operational base for developmental activity. This procedure is the most common and, also, the one which assures the continuation of the cooperative activity since it is not dependent upon vagaries of outside funding. This exemplifies the late Dr. Paul Mort's concept of "pool and share."

Services

Voluntary cooperatives provide an array of services for their constituents. These services can be broadly classified as developmental activity, direct services to pupils, direct services to professional and nonprofessional employees, administrative assistance, inservice education for educational personnel, cooperative operation of schools for exceptional children (those that are gifted, those with physical or mental handicaps to learning, those with special vocational needs, etc.), and the operation of programs of an experimental or developmental nature. Other voluntary cooperatives also engage in some research (usually in "action" research and field studies) to help identify and remedy common problems. Long-range planning and educational communication are examples of emergent kinds of services.

Trends

There is a trend toward increasing formal cooperation in education. This cooperation is sometimes encouraged by federal legislation, sometimes by grass roots interests, and by attempts at reorganization. Social pressures, such as demands for accountability and public reluctance to support bond issues, also are encouraging educators to seek new and cooperative approaches to education. Although at first glance it would seem that small and/or rural districts have more to gain from cooperation, there is evidence that cooperation among urban school districts is increasing. The continual increase of school study councils, the increase of states moving toward regional education service agencies and/or planning districts suggest that the concept of cooperation in education is coming into its own.

As schools try to retrain their staffs and provide the broader spectrum of services that society seems to expect from them, there is a concurrent searching for new ways to make use of community resources and to share the expertise of nearby schools. These forces encourage school men to look at cooperation as a procedure for providing more and better services economically. It has been suggested that cooperation provides a more economic program, but there has been little research to support this fact. In common sense terms, it seems feasible that cooperation should be economically beneficial.

Criteria for the development and activities of voluntary cooperatives recurred in the research literature. Basically, voluntary educational cooperatives have been established so that local district educational services can be expanded; seldom do voluntary cooperatives engage in activities which local districts could economically or efficiently engage in by themselves. Normally, the voluntary cooperatives are established so that activities can be conducted as closely as possible to the pupil (in the local district) if that district has the resources (manpower and money) to conduct the activity. Voluntary cooperatives often engage in such activities as inservice training, development, providing special services for exceptional pupils, and cooperatively operating special activities such as vocational and adult education.

Perhaps the most consistent phenomenon about voluntary cooperatives is the lack of hard data about them. Seldom are their inner workings publicized; more often, references are made to programs conducted by them, but little is available about the economic benefit and/or benefit to the pupil. Some cooperatives have projected possible economies of operation, but few have evaluated operations in terms of these hypothesized economies. Notable exceptions to this are found in the Appalachian region, where some cooperatives have engaged in driver education activities and have shown that the per pupil cost for driver education can be reduced through cooperation, and in the operation of regional media centers.

Interviews with personnel who administer voluntary cooperatives indicate that few have had formal training to prepare them for the operation of a multi-district educational activity.

Changes in the fabric of American society are indicating that consolidation of smaller districts into larger and larger districts may not be a panacea. In fact, some large city schools are now decentralizing their administrations. In some cases, the decentralized system may resemble an educational cooperative in that activities relative to instruction and operation of schools are kept close to the people while general supportive and administrative activities (such as scheduling, purchasing, bus routing) are centralized for each of the decentralized units.

Encouragement for cooperation has been felt by various legislative forces and through activities of the U. S. Office of Education. Certainly, too, advancements in communications and transportation are adding to the forces which encourage educators to view cooperation as a desirable way for improvement of educational opportunities.

Perhaps one reaction on the part of educators to the increasing demands put on schools is the expansion and development of various forms of educational cooperation. Unless an educational cooperative develops the capabilities for generating innovative solutions to educational problems, it is not providing anything new in the educational structure; it is merely the compounding of present inadequacies.

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CHAPTER IV

SCHOOL STUDY COUNCILS

I. INTRODUCTION

A "school study council" may be defined as a group of local school systems working together, usually under the sponsorship of an institution of higher education, for the purpose of solving defined educational problems existing in member schools. It is typically a loose confederation with totally voluntary membership. (School study councils are often known also as "school development councils.")

One of the first attempts at such a cooperative educational activity was in the 1930's with the Eight Year Study (1). This study demonstrated that through coordinated efforts a large number of cooperating school districts could work together to solve educational problems. The first formal council was formed in 1942 under the direction of Paul Mort, of Teachers College, Columbia University. It was called The Metropolitan School Study Council and was composed of 28 school systems in the metropolitan New York area. It still is an active council.

Since that date, the number has grown to 81 councils across the nation. Some councils encompass very large geographic areas; others are more restricted. The Associated Public School System, for example, includes school systems across the entire nation; the Western New York School Study Council has members in one region of a state; the New England School Development Council has member schools in the six New England states; the Public Schools for Cooperative Research includes only certain schools in the eastern portion of Tennessee.

A recent study revealed that approximately one-half (51.0 percent) of the councils are a product of the decade of the 1960's; 23.4 percent of the new existing councils were organized in the 1940's. During the variation of the number of school districts designated as charter members among these new councils. The median number of districts was 21. Twelve councils began with 10 or fewer districts, while 16 councils reported 31 or more charter member districts. (2:17)

II. EXTANT FEATURES OF SCHOOL STUDY COUNCILS

Organizational Structure

Council activities are planned and controlled in nearly all instances by governing boards or executive committees. These boards also have the responsibility for approving the employment of personnel and the preparation of budgets. (3:257) From previous studies, the governing boards were found to consist of an average of six members, most of whom were practicing school superintendents. (4:2)

A tenet of organizational theory is that policy determining boards should consist of some representation from those affected by decisions of that board. In the final analysis, any lasting change in educational programs must come through the activities of classroom teachers. Few council governing boards, however, have representation from this group. This lack of representation by classroom teachers is probably one of the greatest weaknesses in governing board structure. (5:103)

When councils serve large areas such as an entire state or several states, a decentralized governing board is generally recommended, (6:99) Several sub-regional boards could be created to bring the governing units geographically closer to school districts they serve. Representatives of school systems predominate on the governing boards. In Danenburg's study, 84 percent of the councils had school system representatives on their governing boards. The next highest area of representation was the sponsoring institution, with 13 percent of the councils reporting membership in this classification. Organization staff, other institutions of higher education, the state department of education, and representatives of business were sparsely represented among the governing bodies. (2)

The number of members on the governing boards ranges from two to 27. At the ends of the scale only two councils report fewer than four board members, while three councils indicate having more than 22 board members. (2) It appears that the decision-making base is enlarging. The average number of board members has increased from six to eight since the Fox Valley Survey was made in 1966 (4).

Governing board members serve for various periods of time. The range reported in Danenburg's study* was from one to seven years. Three-year terms were most numerous among the councils, while about one-fourth of the councils reported one-year terms for their governing board members.

The typical staff of a council is composed of an executive director, a secretary, consultants, and graduate assistants. (10) Larger councils employ additional full-time professional personnel to assist the executive director. (7:10) In most cases, the executive director is employed part-time by the council and part-time by the sponsoring college or university. (4; 2; 8)

The graduate assistants are frequently doctoral students enrolled in educational administration and supervision. Their duties include assisting with the preparation of reports and serving as secretaries to council sub-committees. (9) Consultants are drawn from the sponsoring institution as well as institutions and organizations outside the council service area. These individuals, usually employed on a short-term contract basis, conduct special studies and inservice education programs. (3)

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*Danenburg's study (2) was conducted as an integral part of this interpretive study.

Sponsoring Institutions

It is customary for councils to be initiated and sponsored by institutions of higher education. (7: 1; 2; 8) Colleges and universities provide this sponsorship as a means of fulfilling their public service mission and a way for faculties to use more effectively the research facilities of school systems. (3:258) Councils provide a unique vehicle to bring together able persons from the institutions and school systems for the study of educational problems. (10:29)

Sponsorship by an institution has several forms. Some colleges and universities support the entire cost of council operations. Others contribute the cost of a faculty member to work part-time in a council leadership position. (7:110) Still other manifestations of this sponsorship are the provision of office space and equipment and the support of graduate assistantships and internships. (11:21; 2)

Financial Resources

Councils receive income from two principal sources: the member school districts and the sponsoring institutions. (12:53) Secondary sources of income are government grants and publication sales. (13:22)

The member school districts are usually assessed membership fees based on factors such as the student population or the assessed value of property of the district. (3) The sponsoring institutions contribute both cash and goods and services to councils. (13:20)

Several recommendations have been made regarding how to increase the councils' incomes. Enlarging the size of the geographic area served would increase the potential membership fees. (9:6) Expanding the number of publications offered for sale is another means of increasing revenues. (14:172)

Functions

There are a varied number of activities undertaken by school study and/or development councils. Functionally, these activities may be classified as research, development, or dissemination in nature. The consensus of the writer appears to be that dissemination is the most important of these functions. (15: 2; 16: 112) Dissemination activities are frequently found in the form of inservice education and idea sharing.

Another vehicle for dissemination is publications. Types of publications mentioned are research reports, conference proceedings, and newsletters. (13: 22)

Cooperative research, described as research conducted jointly by several school systems and an institution of higher education, is usually listed second on priority lists of activities. (16: 113)

Size and Geographic Area

The multi-county region is the most frequently reported service area. Danenburg reported that more than one-half of the councils in his study reported several counties as the geographic area they serve. One-fourth of the councils reported serving one state and a very small number of councils (3.9 percent) reported serving several states. Isolated councils mentioned single cities or suburban areas. (2)

Types of Population Served

The mixed population area (urban-suburban-rural) predominates as a setting for councils. More than one-third of the councils in Danenburg's study fall into this classification as do most of the "successful" councils in Babel's study. The urban-rural combination was reported next in degree of frequency. Exclusively urban populations were reported by only a very few of the councils. Even though a number of the councils have headquarters in central cities, their member school districts seem to be located in the surrounding surburban communities. A reason for this arrangement may be that the suburban school districts frequently have greater ability to pay for council membership. (2)

More than one-half of the councils serve a combination of school districts whose student population is in excess of 150,000. Less than 15 percent of the councils serve school districts making up a total student population of less than 30,000. (2)

III. ACTIVITIES OF SCHOOL STUDY COUNCILS

The three most important activities of study councils are inservice training, cooperative research, and the sharing of information. (2; 15; 16; 17) Another frequent activity is the sharing of such facilities as film libraries, vocational education, and data processing equipment.

Danenburg's study secured a ranking of activities according to importance. Inservice education ranked first. Dissemination and developmental activity ranked second and third respectively in importance. (2: 85 *et seq.*) The high priority assigned to inservice education by Seiple, Garber, and Danenburg attest to its importance as a council activity. (2; 15; 16; 17) Councils perceived they were most effective in the area of inservice education, dissemination, and gathering information; least effective in research, diffusion, and evaluation. (2:86)

Some system of evaluation of activities is used by most councils. Babel points out that a "planned evaluation process" is a characteristic activity of "successful" councils. (11) Evaluation conducted by a single council staff member is the process most often used. Evaluation by the recipient of the service is employed by some councils. Other evaluation systems include the use of outside counsultants, Title III ESEA personnel, and staff members of state departments of education. There is no evidence of the use of "cost effectiveness" models for evaluation purposes; rather, subjective evaluation seems to be the norm. (2: 93)

IV. NATIONAL SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT COUNCIL

In 1968 the National School Development Council was formed. Incorporated in Massachusetts, this organization has as its prime purpose that of providing a mechanism for the initiation of cooperative projects between and among study councils throughout the United States. Other purposes include management services and talent resources for workshops, inservice education, conferences, etc. and to encourage and coordinate research, dissemination and diffusion.

Governance is by an executive committee of twelve members, at least one member from each of the four major national subdivisions. An "Executive Officer" is elected from among this group to generally give leadership and direction to executive committee action and to the membership at large. The regular annual meeting is held preceding or during the convention of the American Association of School Administrators.

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A school study council is typically a loose confederation of local school districts with a totally voluntary membership, normally under the sponsorship of an institution of higher education. There are over 80 identified school study councils across the nation, approximately half of which are a product of the decade of the sixties; at least 10 a product of 1970. They vary in size from less than ten members to more than 300. A mixed population area, i.e., urban-suburban-rural, predominates as a setting for the council, and more than half of the councils serve a combination of school districts whose student population is in excess of 150,000. Active councils are reported in thirty-one states.

More than half of the councils have a multi-county service area. The annual membership growth rate was highest among these councils. If membership growth is an objective, it would appear desirable for a new council to consider a multi-county or regional base of membership rather than attempt to serve an entire state, or several states.

Organizational Structure

Council activities are planned and controlled in nearly all instances by governing boards or executive committees, composed in large part of superintendents or their representatives from member school districts. Governing board members serve for various periods of time with the range from one to seven years; three year terms are the most common. Governing boards are composed primarily of superintendents. Many council activities are designed, however, for teachers and other non-administrative educational personnel. There appears to be a need for teachers, school board members, and other segments of the educational community to participate, through membership on governing boards, in the planning of these activities. Without the active involvement of these individuals, resistance to council programs could develop. The governing board normally employs an executive director who most often is a part-time employee of the council, holding this position concurrent with a position as a faculty member in a college of education. There appears to be little positive relationship between the number of member school districts, the rate of growth, and whether the director is employed either part- or full-time. Successful councils do reveal a low director turnover.

Few councils designate any specific educational requirements for their chief administrative position. The exceptions are councils employing full-time directors. Because of the professional skill and leadership called for, it seems that there should be a minimum requirement of a Master's degree with substantial experience at the supervisory level. A doctoral degree in education would probably be preferable, since the position involves the design of research and complex inservice education programs.

Further, Danenburg reports the following:

Inservice education also ranks first in allocation of councils' resources. For inservice education, 28 councils allocate more than 11 percent of their resources. Twenty-four councils allocate more than 11 percent of their resources for research. Nineteen councils allocate more than 11 percent of their resources for conferences and conventions. Publications rank fourth, with 14 councils reporting a resource allocation of more than 11 percent. (2)

Ranking at the fifth through ninth positions of activities receiving more than 11 percent of the councils' resources are service in developing new projects (eight councils), curriculum development (11 councils), consultant activity (seven councils), demonstration projects (four councils), and governing board activity (two councils).

The scope of activities is broadened considerably when councils cosponsor these activities with other agencies or institutions. Illustrative of cosponsored activities are conferences, workshops, and institutes for administrators, teachers, and nonprofessional school personnel. Cosponsores include professional associations, college departments, state departments of education, and federal agencies. Several typical cosponsored activities reported by the respondent councils are listed in Figure 1.

Most school study councils devote some central office energies to the preparation of publications for members. House organs appear as an important means of keeping members aware of best practices by schools within the councils, future programs and meeting dates of study groups, and reports on studies of general interest. Babel found that "successful" councils devoted much attention to written reports as a means of communicating with member schools. (8)

A second major category of publications consists of the reports of research and conferences. These publications are usually made available without cost fo council members and sold to educators outside the council. It is interesting and perhaps anomalous that the second major category of publications should be "research reports" since most councils do not perceive themselves in the research dimension.

A majority of the councils publish a broad variety of materials. Thirty-four councils reported publishing a "house organ" or intra-organization newsletter. Research reports and conference proceedings are also published by a majority of the councils. Scholarly journals are at the bottom of the list, with only nine councils reporting such publications.

The graduate assistant is the other key professional council staff member. The work of the council is often dependent upon the quantity and quality of these individuals. A majority of councils employed fewer than one full-time equivalent graduate student. The most frequently offered suggestion by council directors was increasing the number of graduate assistants to increase staff capability.

ACTIVITY	COSPONSOR
School Community Relations Seminar	Another Study Council
Workshop for Custodial Staff	Title I, Higher Education Act
Workshop for Federal Projects Coordinators	Title I, Higher Education Act
Cooperative Curriculum Improvement	Another Study Council
Environmental Studies	4-H Clubs
Computer Based Resource Unit Development	University
Individualization Model	Teacher Education Research Center
Induction of Teachers Model	Teacher Education Research Center
Two-Day Seminar with General Education Commission	State Code Commission
Vandalism Conference	Building and Grounds Division, State Department of Education
Religious Education	Council of Religious Studies
Language Arts Conference	University
A Call to Action--Urban Education	University
Data Systems Workshop	State Association for Educational Data Systems
Reading Improvement Conference	City School System
Regional Health--Sex Education Conference	State Department of Education
School Law Conference	University
School Finance Workshop	School business Officials Association
Economic Seminar	College
Evaluation Seminar	State Department of Education
TV Education Seminar	Public School
Series of Administrative In-Service Workshops	School Management Institute
Art Conference	College
Music Institute	University
Math Conference	Department of Math, University
Secretarial Conference	State Association of School Secretaries
Student Involvement Conference	State Department of Education
Elementary Principals Conference	Elementary Principals Association
Secondary Principals Conference	Secondary Principals Association
English Education Workshops	English Education Department of University
Salary Seminar	School Administrators Association

Figure 1.

Typical Council Cosponsored Activities

There is some indication that the position of "educational planner" is a developing one as a part of the professional team in school study councils.

There are few legal requirements for school study councils. Many operate as non-profit corporations and of course must meet state requirements for such corporations. Others have not formalized their operation in this manner and thus are restricted only by state laws which determine the ways in which local school districts may expend monies.

Approximately one-half of the councils are incorporated. Several others indicate that they are considering this step. Because of the contingent liability facing staff members, should injury occur, it would seem highly desirable for all councils to incorporate.

Sponsoring Institutions and Financial Resources

Most councils are initiated by and are still sponsored by public or private institutions of higher learning. Councils sponsored by privately supported institutions appeared slightly larger and more stable than councils sponsored by publicly supported institutions. School districts desiring to form a school study or development council should consider a college or university department of education as the sponsor or co-sponsor.

Most council executive directors have joint teaching appointments with the sponsoring institutions. This practice appears to improve the councils' relationship with the institutions. It also seems to enable the director to better evaluate the faculty resources of the institution. Teaching responsibilities, however, should not be so burdensome as to prevent the director from performing his council duties.

Councils receive incomes from two principal sources: member school districts and the sponsoring institution. Secondary sources of income are government grants and the sale of publications. Member school districts are usually assessed membership fees based on factors such as student population or the assessed evaluation of property in the respective school district. Sponsoring institutions of higher education contribute both cash and goods and services to councils.

A majority of the councils base their membership fees on size of the school district population. This apportionment of costs appears to be sound because it is based, not only on the ability to pay, but also on the quantity of services rendered the school districts.

Services and Activities

Inservice education has a high priority among a majority of councils. Expenditures were highest for this area of council activity. This practice is consistent with the advice given by several writers. There is evidence that the mission of councils should be moving from research toward dissemination and diffusion through inservice education.

While some form of evaluation of activities is undertaken by most councils, the evidence suggests that it is done on a less than continuous or carefully planned basis. Considering the importance of systematic appraisal, councils should seek continuing high quality evaluation of their activities. One study revealed that the existence of a planned evaluation process was characteristics of "successful" councils.

Services of councils are directed most often to school administrators and least often to the school's non-professional staff. Most councils co-sponsor activities with other organizations or institutions. A majority of councils publish periodic newsletters and research reports. Interestingly, few councils see their major service that of performing research.

Representative attendance at the annual meeting of the National School Development Council was reported by a majority of councils. It appears desirable that council representatives attend the annual national meeting regularly. The opportunity to exchange ideas and materials should strengthen each organization represented at these meetings.

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CHAPTER V

INDUSTRY/EDUCATION COOPERATIVES

I. RATIONALE FOR INDUSTRY/EDUCATION COOPERATION

Interest in the nature and status of cooperative endeavors between business/industry and education is becoming increasingly widespread among educators and industrial leaders. Educators realize that the job of educating America's youth is not the sacred domain of the schools; other facets of the community cannot be ignored. Business, industry and labor are becoming more conscious of their social responsibilities triggered in part by the nation's recently declared war on poverty and on environmental pollution, invariably leading to involvement in some type of educational endeavors.

A study by Weatherby, *et al.*, attempted to distinguish between the older and newer education companies that are involved in education. The older companies are represented by textbook publishers, manufacturers of standard equipment, educational film producers, and text publishers. The newer business/education enterprises tend to be research and development companies, management consulting firms, materials developers, new technology and equipment producers, and suppliers of a various array of specialized services to schools. (1) Some of the giants of American industry entering the education market-place as competitors include Westinghouse, IBM, Xerox, Sylvania, Cowles, RCA, 3M, Time-Life, McGraw-Hill, Litton Industries, Raytheon, The New York Times, and CBS. (2:113)

II. HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Both industry and labor, historically, have been interested in education, especially in vocational education programs that have the potential for producing skilled labor. Management, generally, has welcomed a vast, and therefore cheap, labor force. Labor, however, has generally found its position enhanced by restricting the labor force in any given trade. (3:208)

Vocational education has perhaps provided the best examples of industrial involvement and participation in education during the past 50 years. (4:3) The 1968 Amendments to the Vocational Education Act (P.L. 90-576) mandated that states create statewide advisory councils to be composed of leading businessmen with the purpose of helping to improve statewide vocational education programs. (The 1968 Amendments were silent on the establishment of local advisory councils which is where they might have had their most immediate and meaningful impact.

During the 1960's the schools were provided with a myriad of activities and services by business and industry which demonstrated their capabilities for improving the schools and for making education more relevant to the world of work. Where school people welcomed, encouraged, and helped to guide industry's involvement, the schools benefitted immensely. Those educators who were unfamiliar or fearful of industry's involvement failed to utilize industry's resources for the school's benefit. (4:1)

The recent trends toward more school accountability, responsibility, and the involvement of various publics in the school affairs and the decision-making processes have led many school systems to actively seek involvement of industry and other community groups in all aspects of the school's operations.

Information about industry/education cooperative programs has generally been reported and disseminated to other industry groups by the U.S. Chamber of Commerce, the National Association of Manufacturers, the National Industrial Conference Board, the Urban Coalition, national unions/industrial trade associations, and the National Association for Industry/Education Cooperation. Only the last organization has made this program its primary task. (4:2)

National education organizations (e.g., the National Education Association, U.S. Office of Education, and the American Vocational Association) have done little more than publish occasional pamphlets about the formation and operation of advisory councils. The American Vocational Association is now devoting more space in its monthly magazines to case study reports of industry/education cooperatives.

III. FEATURES OF EXISTING INDUSTRY/EDUCATION COOPERATIVES

A review of the literature and three recently released related studies suggest that industry/education cooperatives may be generally classified in one of three ways: (1) industry to school- i.e., adopt-a-school or to perform a specific job-training program with a total school system; (2) industry/education councils- usually operating on a regional basis with orientation primarily toward business and industries but with assistance to schools where possible; and (3), educational councils or research centers- usually operating on a multi-school system basis but receiving financial support from both industry and education. Studies and their findings are summarized in this section.

Weatherby, Allen, and Blackner Study

Weatherby, et. al., identified six different and emerging types of business/education partnerships. They are classified as (1) consortiums involving a school system and a university based semi-private organization, (2) cooperation involving an industry and a school or schools, (3) consortium between a school system and several businesses, (4) industry/education consultative arrangements, (5) industry/education performance contracts, and (6) industry/education regional councils. (1)*

Sovde Study

Sovde in a study for the New England School Development Council (NESDEC), reported the existence of five major kinds of cooperative, endeavors engaged in by industry and education. Sovde's classifications similar to Weatherby's, are (1) the Industry/Education Council, (2) the "adopt-a-school" program, (3) specific consultative assistance in specific areas needed by the schools, (4) the non-school concept, and (5) the businessmen's point of view-management. (4)

Industry/Education Council--The development of industry/education councils at the regional and sometimes national level is seen as an effective vehicle to facilitate communications between industry, education, and the community to improve the efforts of public education. One such council--the Northern California Industry/Education Council--has as its goals to provide a structure to bring the community together, to make education relevant and meaningful, to provide incentives for youth, and to make education and the educational processes a more constructive force in our society.

The councils provide a structure whereby leaders from both education and industry can meet together to discuss problems, share resources, and create programs of general and specific values. Such programs may result in conference, symposiums, seminars, and so on, and may involve any number of individuals and groups from within, as well as outside, the community. Benefits from these programs frequently result in specific programs for improvements within the schools.

These councils are usually non-profit organizations. Control can be a board and/or executive committee. Finances come primarily from membership, educational institutions and industry, donations and grants by industry and foundations, and conference registration receipts.

Adopt-A-School. The major objectives of the "adopt-a-school" program are (1) to build bridges between schools and the world of work, (2) to develop positive individual concepts by helping youngsters realize that they have the potential for gainful employment, (3) to encourage post high school and college training, and (4) to help students gain an understanding of the relationship between what they do in school and how it directly affects what they may do in the complex business world.

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*Explanations and examples of these classifications are developed in other sections of this chapter.

To illustrate further the operations, purposes and functions of such regional and/or national operationally based councils or centers, a brief case study is reported in the attachment on four such operations. They are: (1) The Educational Research Council of America, (2) The Greater Wilmington Development Council, (3) The Institute for Educational Research, and (4) The Joint Council on Economic Education.

Several Detroit firms are pioneering in this type of partnership in education. Two examples are the Michigan Bell Telephone Company and the Chrysler Corporation. The Institute for Educational Development has reported thirty-three partnerships involving thirty-two schools in twenty-three cities in the United States.

Guidelines developed by the "adopt-a-school" program suggest that cooperation has a better chance of success if (1) the initiative is left to the professional educators, (2) the entire professional staff of the schools are involved in planning and idea formation, (3) orientation programs are provided to orient business people to the needs, problems, and nature of the educational system; also, educators should be oriented to the resources and possible assistance available through industry. Considerable care should be taken concerning any publicity about industry/education cooperatives efforts. Good programs can be ruined if trust and positive relationships do not exist between the two groups or if one group thinks the other is trying to make some type gain (e.g., political) from their efforts. (4: 6-8)

Specific Consultative Assistance. Another type of industry/education cooperation involves the performance of specific tasks by industry and its personnel for education because of some special competence and expertise which they have. These services may range in form from a brief telephone call for advice to short periods of full-time involvement of industry personnel with some specific task for the local school system.

Examples of this third type of cooperation has been reported by the New Haven, Connecticut, School System. Their efforts involved the Olin-Winchester Company and the Southern New England Telephone Company (SNET) and improved management of the school system. It seems of primary importance that the school superintendent was the initiator for such collaboration. Implementation of recommendations was left to the school system and not to industry's consultants.

The New Haven school/industry programs have focused on (1) systems analysis and organizations, (2) business office supervision and customer relations, and (3) community and public relations.

Other types of cooperation between industry and education have been related to (1) industry/education performance contracting (e.g., the Texarkana Project) and (2) the conducting of studies related to the improvement of administrative, office, and business practices and procedures. Most of these latter type studies, however, have seemingly been initiated by top level business executives or groups in state government. Criticisms generally conclude that (1) the survey or task force members spent too little time in the schools and/or the community to understand their problems and how they related to each other and (2) the studies might be more effective if conducted on a local basis whereby follow-up programs for improvements might result under more conducive and positive conditions.*

Banta and Towne Study

Banta and Towne, is an extensive nation-wide interpretive study to identify and describe job-oriented education programs for the disadvantaged jointly sponsored by private industry and the schools, identified 66 such programs operating in 22 states. These programs operated on a industry to a single, multi-school, or a school system basis. (5)

Banta and Towne's classification of identified cooperatives related to job-oriented education programs shows: contract construction (building trades), manufacturers, transportation, communications, electric, gas, sanitary services, wholesale and retail trade, finances, insurance, and real estate, miscellaneous business, automotive and sponsors of school organizations. (5: v-25)

Most training programs for the disadvantaged are located in the nation's largest cities with 50 percent of the exemplary programs surveyed being located in cities with populations of 500,000 or more. Only seven percent of the exemplary programs were found in towns of 50,000 or less. (5: v-4) (For a listing of involved companies, locations and nature of programs, see Table II, Section V, pp. 5-21 of the Banta and Towne study).

The cooperative, job-oriented education program for the disadvantaged is usually aimed at one or more of the following groups: (1) disadvantaged in-school youth (including potential dropouts), (2) school dropouts, (3) the hard core unemployed, (4) present company employees, and (5) prospective company employees. (5: v-23)

Fifty-three percent of the programs reported were at the secondary school levels; twenty-two percent with a single school; seventeen percent with more than one school; and thirteen percent with an entire school system. Eighteen percent reported school involvement at the basic adult education level; twelve percent at the post secondary level; eight percent at the university level; five percent at the junior college level; and four percent at the elementary level. (5: v-24)

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*For specific examples and locations of various types of industry/education programs, the reader is referred to the Sovde Study.

Of those industry/education cooperatives that involved other agencies, thirty-six percent were with state employment agencies; sixteen percent with the National Alliance of Businessmen; thirteen percent with the Urban League; thirteen percent with local welfare agencies; eleven percent with a federal anti-poverty agency; four percent with the Urban Coalition, and seven percent listed other groups such as unions, Chambers of Commerce, or an employer's association. (5: v-24)

Financial costs to companies ranged from 0-$3,000 per person involved with the average cost being $655.00. Those reporting no cost did not equate their paying of trainees for work as real costs. (5: v-32)

Douglass selected 15 exemplary programs identified in the Banta-Towne study for case study descriptions and to illustrate exemplary industry, education cooperative efforts. Each of the programs was aimed at one or more targets and target populations. Several approaches to training were found to exist.

> Of the six categories of target population, Disadvantaged In-School Youth (including potential dropouts) were served by such different approaches as curriculum planning assistance, industry visitation, school adoption, and work experiences (and/or job training) and education. School Dropouts were served by a vocational guidance approach and by work experience and education. The Hard-Core Unemployed category included two program types: job training and education, and job training with general orientation training. Company Employees were trained by four approaches: diploma oriented academic work, basic education, retraining, and upgrade training. Prospective Employees were served by means of job fares, pre-employment remedial education and skills training. And School Counselors were served by means of vocational guidance institutes. (6: ii)

An important and continuing source of information for the reader about a wide range of cooperative endeavors to solve public problems is provided in digest form by the Action Report, a quarterly publication of the Chase Manhattan Bank of New York.

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Better cooperation between industry, education, and the entire community is essential for continued improvement in educational programs and opportunities, and indeed, the quality of life in America. In order that this might occur, open and frank communication is essential among all parties in an atmosphere exemplified by trust, equality of participants, and a real interest in improving education for all America's youth.

The initiative for cooperative endeavors rests primarily with the school people. Care must be taken, however, to see that broad participation occurs from within the schools, industry, and community and that specific areas are clearly defined in which the nature and kind of help sought is compatible with expertise held by the involved parties.

Industry/education cooperation promises many rewards in developing positive community attitudes and understanding of the schools, their problems, needs, and how they might do a better job of serving the community. Both the Banta-Towne and the Sovde studies seem to suggest that industry feels that working with the schools on a cooperative program fosters better relationships between the two groups, and the results are a better understanding by school people of the needs of industry and vice-versa. Certainly, such cooperation can help school people plan and conduct their programs--especially their vocational programs-in ways that make them more relevant to the "now" world.

Contact with industry has also put at the disposal of schools a new range of expertise and consultative assistance in many broad areas including business management, public-relations, research and technical information. Contact with industry has also forced schools to develop greater flexibility in school scheduling, update courses and course contents, improve teaching methodology, and develop better instructional materials and facilities.

Industry, as a result of cooperating with schools, is much more aware of the problems faced by the schools, including financial and other situations with which the schools are faced, as they attempt to educate America's youth. Industry also is beginning to revamp their old practices of finding the man for the job to one of training a man for the job. Newer approaches reflecting the principles of the behavioral sciences are being applied by industry in such areas as employee screening, hiring, training, and promotions.

A word of caution seems in order as a result of increased incentive money to private industry to conduct research and to teach programs in education. Related federal and traditional educational budgets have become powerful magnets to industry. Such an attraction might create an industrial/education complex in which a tug-of-war would begin on the national scene for the control of education and educational planning. (4: 29-31)

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ATTACHMENT

CASE STUDIES

The Educational Research Council of America (10:11)

The Educational Research Council of America (ERC), located in Cleveland, Ohio, is an independent, non-profit, research and development center for elementary and secondary education. The ERC was formed in 1959 by seven school systems and a number of interested industries in the greater Cleveland area. The major purpose of ERC is the improvement of elementary and secondary education. Particular emphasis in most of its programs is placed on education for the terminal student at the secondary level.

Four major cooperating groups made up the ERC as of January, 1970: a full-time professional and technical staff, including research and development specialists in subject-matter and pedagogy; a corps of exemplary scholars who serve as consultants; a Board of Trustees consisting of civic and business leaders; and twenty-four participating school districts. Because of an Ohio state law, school systems are not "members;" they are participants. In Ohio, a school district may not be a member of any organization other than organizations of school boards, but can be a "participant."

The major thrust of ERC is curriculum development; most all other activities are closely related to curriculum development. Although ERC conducts inservice education and research, the thrust or focus of both activities is on an improved curriculum. Also, although ERC has media and publication units, these are primarily concerned with the production of curriculum materials. The organization uses consultant services and provides consultant services to local districts. The ERC engages in a great deal of in-service education, both one day activities and three to five day workshops. Sessions are held at the ERC or in local districts.

Participating schools serve largely as laboratories for field testing of programs under development. However, they receive many benefits and services from ERC as a result. These services include consultant assistance, produced materials at or near cost, in-service education, and other types of teacher training assistance.

The ERC provides a wide range of programs and services involving most of the basic subject matter areas. Program components or departments of ERC in which work is under development and through which services are available to participating school districts include social sciences, humanities, reading/language arts, child psychology, mathematics, natural sciences, occupational education, health and physical education, French, evaluation and testing, urban education, administrative studies and consultation, inservice education, multi-media center, and data processing. Other services include pupil projection, school building, surveys, school district surveys, and surveys of school business practices.

ERC's research and development activities are fostered mainly through the cooperative efforts of professional educators, college specialists, participating school staffs, civic and business leaders, and its own staff.

Schools served by ERC enroll approximately 250,000 pupils. Participants of ERC are located in several states, but primarily are suburban Cleveland Schools. A crucial element of ERC is the intense commitment of the superintendents, who make ERC go and must devote much energy and time to the organization.

Although the organization has been primarily concerned with suburban school problems, it is in the process of expending some efforts on inner-city problems.

ERC has received national acclaim for the development of its Greater Cleveland Mathematics Program, published by SRA. ERC's Annual Report (1969) shows that three new programs are under contract by publishers. These programs include the ERC Physical Education Program, (publisher-Charles E. Merrill); the Social Science Program (publisher-Allyn and Bacon); and a Life Science Program (publisher--Houghton-Mifflin).

The organization receives its funds primarily from donations from industries, individuals, foundations and membership fees from participating schools. The ERC has undertaken two contracts with the state education agency and is contemplating the possibility of moving into some areas of Federal funding. Another source of revenue is royalties and fees paid ERC for its materials. The ERC makes modest charges for registration for member districts as they participate in workshops and other activities. Also, if ERC staff travels far to provide service for a participating district, there is a charge for travel and lodging. However, most services of ERC are covered by participation fees.

Fees for participating districts are a flat $6,000 plus a fraction of one percent (6/10 of one percent in 1970-71) of their operating budgets minus capital outlay and transportation expenses. Present membership includes twenty-five school systems with two parochial systems. No institutions of higher education are directly connected with the council.

The Greater Wilmington Development Council

In 1960, the mayor of Wilmington, Delaware called together a group of influential and prominent citizens and business and industrial leaders, in an attempt to interest them in applying their skills, talents and other resources toward helping solve some of Wilmington's urban problems. This meeting resulted in the formation of the Greater Wilmington Development Council (GWDC) which was incorporated as a non-profit organization under the State laws of Delaware. The broad and general purposes of the GWDC were (1) to seek solutions to Wilmington's Urban problems, (2) to promote programs that would enhance or improve the environment and other physical development of the area, and (3) to promote better human development.

Governance of the GWDC is by a Board of Directors elected from the general membership. Membership is open to anyone who desires and makes a financial contribution to the GWDC. One-third of the sixty-six Board of Directors are elected each year to a three-year term. The board, in turn, elects an executive committee from among its members to work very closely with the regular staff to oversee various GWDC operations. The executive committee meets monthly, and the full board of electors meets quarterly.

Many board members and other citizens serve on standing committees, which are working committees charged with performing certain task sometimes with or without staff and/or consultative assistance.

The GWDC professional staff consists of only three members - an executive vice president, and educational director, and an administrative director. Most of the work is done through consultants on a contractural basis. The consultants come from business, industry, and/or education.

The GWDC works with education, governmental and public agencies, and local businesses and industries in an effort to reach its objectives. Originally, the GWDC's target area for providing assistance involved only the school systems, businesses, industries, and governmental and other public agencies primarily located in the greater Wilmington area or Newcastle County. Recent thrusts, however, include the entire state in a much broader effort to deal with educational and social problems on a state-wide basis with business and industry involvement.

Some of the programs in which the GWDC are involved include (1) financial assistance for needy students who want to attend college, (2) an internship program for college students (usually having backgrounds in planning and the social sciences) to work in various city and county government agencies, and (3) consultative assistance to governmental agencies, education, and business in areas of administration, organization, planning, urban development and renewal and urban problems, job training programs, and management studies.

Two spin-off cooperatives that grew out of GWDC's efforts, and are now operationally independent, are the Housing Corporation to build homes for low and moderate income families and a corporation dedicated to the development of downtown Wilmington. GWDC is now in the process of stimulating interest in and the development of a statewide educational research and development council.

Eighty percent of the operational funds for the GWDC come from private industry and foundations located mostly in or near the Wilmington area. The remaining twenty percent come from contributions by various individual citizens.

Major personnel problems as identified by the GWDC's chief executive officer are: (1) locating consultants or personnel that have proper expertise and understandings necessary to design programs to solve urban problems, as well as designing programs to train the hard core unemployed, and (2) program evaluators. Another need identified was the necessity to find ways to improve communications between corporate executives, GWDC's own Board of Directors, and educators.

The Institute for Educational Research (IER)

The Institute for Educational Research (IER) formally began its operations on February 13, 1964 as the result of fifteen school districts coming together and deciding that they could use research to improve their educational programs and increase their effectiveness. Currently, membership involves 33 school districts, both public and private. Headquarters for IER are located at Downers Grove, Illinois.

IER is an incorporated, non-profit educational organization. Theodore Storlie, Director, in an interview reported to the writers that the purposes of IER are as follows:

1. To conduct research and development studies for school districts and independent schools on problems of concern to them.
2. To assist school district superintendents in the determination of ways in which research and evaluation will assist them most in improving the effectiveness of the districts.
3. To provide evaluation services for school districts to aid in decesion making regarding educational programs.
4. To provide consultant help to the central administration of districts.
5. To search for existing research which may be of use to a school district in decision making.

6. To disseminate research and evaluation findings in such a manner as to be of practical use to school districts.

7. To develop educational resources (materials, programs, equipment and inservice training) in response to needs of school districts.

Governance of IER is by an eleven member executive committee whose members serve for three years. The executive committee elects a Board of Trustees composed of businessmen and school board members who also serve for three year terms. Superintendents of each member district are members of the Representative Council which meets at least twice yearly. The Representative Council elects 8 of the 11 executive committee members. The president and secretary of the Board of Trustees and the executive director represent the remaining three members of the executive committee.

The Representative Council determines major research directions and approves major projects. However, the IER, for the most part, concentrates on decision oriented research because of its mission to aid school districts. It also evaluates and utilizes previous research--both basic and applied--in its efforts to answer various school districts' questions.

Some of the activities sponsored or co-sponsored by IER include inservice training programs for teachers and potential researchers, a research internship program, and various seminars and conferences of interest to member school districts.

Other activities engaged in by the IER during the 1969 fiscal year include research projects related to (1) the improvement of early learning abilities, (2) the effectiveness of motor-training programs, (3) reading, writing and speech, (4) language arts study, (5) speech improvement program for kindergarten children, (6) speed reading, (7) application of systems approaches to curricular development, (8) cost-effectiveness, (9) program evaluation, and (10) others.

IER's major source of income is from school membership fees levied on a per pupil basis. The eventual goal is for IER's budget to represent 1% of the operating budgets of the member districts. Other sources of income are from contributions by various businesses and industries. To date, contributions from the latter source have not met expectations, and plans are now underway to increase this revenue source.

The Joint Council on Economic Education (JCEE)

The JCEE, located in New York City, is an independent, non-profit, nonpartisan, educational organization established in 1949 to encourage, improve, coordinate and service the economic education movement. Its Board of Trustees represents all sectors of the economy with financial support from various foundations, business, organized labor, farm groups and individuals. More than thirty public and private organizations actively cooperate with the JCEE on the national level. However, its principal medium for expanding and improving economic education is through a network of one hundred and three Affiliated Councils that function at the state level and Centers for Economic Education on college and university campuses.

The mission or goal of the Joint Council is to improve the quality and increase the quantity of economics taught in our schools and colleges. The best methods for achieving this are through increasing the economic content of schools' curricula, better preparation of teachers, and improved teaching materials.

The JCEE also encourages the establishment of local organizations devoted to encouraging economic education. JCEE also initiates research (experiments with new curricula and new ways to prepare teachers), serves as a clearing-house, and coordinates the efforts of national groups interested in economic education.

One-hundred and thirty seven (137) school systems across the nation are involved as economic education laboratories in cooperation with the JCEE. The program now referred to as the Cooperating Schools Program grew out of the JCEE's Developmental Economic Education Program (DEEP). The DEEP program operated between 1960-64. It originally began with 29 economic education laboratories. The DEEP program represented "the largest experimental teaching program in the social sciences ever undertaken in the nation's schools." The DEEP programs were usually financed by grants from the JCEE, local school system funds, and contributions from private business groups or individuals that were in sympathy with the program goals. Technical assistance was provided by the JCEE staff and state or local affiliated councils.

The JCEE was initially funded by the Ford Foundation on a decreasing yearly basis. However, during the 1969 fiscal year, more than 229 contributors representing all segments of the economy supported the Council.

Other activities with which the JCEE has been involved include the development of economic tests of economic understanding, curriculum guides, teacher training programs, institutes, development of 120 film television series entitled The American Economy developed for College of the Air, and numerous other studies and reports.

Presently there are 45 Affiliated Councils in 42 states (6 additional Council Organizations are reported in the process of formation), 57 Centers for Economic Education in 26 states, and 137 Cooperating School Systems in 32 states.

CHAPTER VI

LEGAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES*

I. THE ROLE OF THE STATE AND FEDERAL GOVERNMENTS IN ESTABLISHING EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

The most noticeable thrusts for cooperation in education of a formal nature seem to have come from state and federal levels of interest. "States have plenary power over education." (1:1-2) Primary responsibilities for education are left to the states by the United States Constitution. The fact that the method of administering and organizing the schools within each state's boundaries was left to the states has resulted in widely varying provisions for school operations in the United States.

Public education is highly autonomous from other state government functions and operates within a special set of laws. While there is general agreement as to the purposes of education, the legal framework within which schools operate varies considerably among the states. Common to all public education, however, is that within each state the local school districts have local lay boards charged with the responsibility of conducting the educational programs within their areas. (2:59)

State education agencies usually consist of a state board of education, a chief state school officer, and a staff of professional and supporting personnel. The state legislature is responsible for school legislation while the state board is considered the policymaking body; the chief state school officer and his staff are responsible for the implementation of the policies, rules and regulations of the state board of education. (3:1-2)

The growth of the equalization principle--every child has a right to an equal educational opportunity regardless of where he lives, or the wealth or political subdivision of the area--has caused the states to take a much more active interest in the quality and equality of educational opportunities within their boundaries. The state in return derives its strength and growth from the assets of an educated citizenry. These conditions result in tremendous pressures on the states not to permit extreme differences and inequality of educational opportunities within their boundaries. At the same time, however, the states realize that minimum education alone is not enough. (1:1-3)

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*Much of the data for this Chapter resulted from communication with each of the 50 states pertaining to (1) existing legislation that affect educational cooperatives and (2) for a review of the analysis made by the writers of each state's legislation.

To provide the necessary improvements in education, some states have passed legislation for some type of intermediate or middle echelon units or voluntary cooperative educational structures as a means to increase the quality, quantity, efficiency, and economy of education within their boundaries. In some cases the legislation mandates the middle echelon; in other cases the legislation is permissive, allowing cooperation between or among schools at an intermediate level.

Similarly, the federal government has encouraged education cooperation through recent legislation. (4:21) A summary of the more important legislation is provided in Chapter I.

II. PROFILE OF SELECTED ENABLING STATE LEGISLATION FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

Wide differences exist among various states' legal arrangements for educational cooperatives and/or intermediate districts. An analysis of the major distinguishing elements of seven models of state legislation is given in this section. The models are selected because of their uniqueness and wide diversity. They represent different states and reflect how each state has attempted to meet its own unique educational needs through cooperative arrangements. No attempt is made to evaluate the effectiveness of the legislation which was approved by Nebraska, New York, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Texas, Wisconsin, "New Hampshire-Vermont" (an interstate school compact allowing a specific area in both states to cooperatively solve their educational problems due to geography).*

Nebraska Service Units

The Nebraska Legislature passed L B 301 in August 1965 which "created 19 multi-county educational service units designed to provide supplementary services for local school districts." (2:56) Emphasis was placed on those services that contribute to quality education which local school districts could not provide because of population or financial reasons.

Nebraska has fewer than 1.5 million people, and 318,881 school pupils. In 1965 it had 2,546 school districts ranging in enrollment from one pupil to more than 59,000. One hundred and sixty-three school districts had enrollments of less than 300 pupils and only two had enrollments of more than 10,000. In addition, most districts had no supervisory services or provisions for teacher inservice growth and development. (6:56-57) One of the major purposes or strengths of the Nebraska service unit is its designated role of coordinating, planning and administering federally financed programs for school districts which, because of their size, lack of staff, etc., are unable or ineligible to receive federal funds.

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*See Attachment A for an outline of each of the state legislative models discussed in this section.

The 19 multi-county service units are designed to cover all areas or school districts within the state. Size ranges from two counties to nine counties. Each unit is controlled by a board elected by the people. Each involved county is entitled to one board member with four members being elected at large. The boards are empowered to levy taxes for educational purposes within a specified limit on all real and personal properties within the boundaries of each service unit. Provisions are spelled out whereby a county may either withdraw or be included in the service units by a vote of its populace. However, legislation is currently proposed to prevent school systems from being able to withdraw from the intermediate units at any time by a popular vote.

Major problems that plague the Nebraska service units are money, poor timing of the effective date for implementation of the legislation (middle of school year), and failure to abolish the old office of the county superintendent.

New York Boards of Cooperative Education Services (BOCES)

In 1948, the New York State Legislature passed legislation that established Boards of Cooperative Education Services (BOCES). The major purpose was to provide an intermediate-type school district structure to enable local school districts within supervisory areas to achieve programs of shared services needed because of sparsity of pupil population or needed educational offerings. (6:401-402)

Functions and services provided by the BOCES units are not limited by law. However, they must be paid for by the receiving local districts according to a weighted formula. In the case of state-approved services, the state picks up one-half of the total cost. This type of arrangement seems to give the state some control over the establishment of educational priorities and services to be provided by the BOCES units. BOCES units may consolidate or cooperate in various ways in order to make them more effective in providing needed educational services.

All financial transfers between the BOCES units and the LEAs are made at the state level with proper certification by the involved parties. LEAs may levy and collect taxes for all BOCES functions. LEAs, once they join BOCES, are also responsible for their weighted share of the BOCES administrative costs regardless of program participation. Any BOCES profits at the end of the year must be transferred back to the LEAs.

Public meetings of eligible voters are required for purposes of capital outlay expenditures involving buildings, lands, or properties.

Property owned by BOCES is tax exempt; however, this is not true for leased or rented properties.

Pennsylvania Intermediate School Units

House Bill No.40, presented in the General Assembly of Pennsylvania Session of 1969, on January 22, 1969, as amended on July 15, 1969, provided that all local school districts be assigned to and be eligible to receive services of an intermediate school unit. The former 66 county school districts were divided into 29 intermediate school units. The cities of Pittsburgh and Philadelphia were established as separate intermediate units.

This bill had the effect of abolishing the old county board of school directors and transferring all powers and functions to the intermediate units. Several school functions and services are designated but do not limit the operations of the intermediate units. These designated functions and services are subsidized by the state. Other services beyond these are financed totally from local funds.

Provisions are made for contracting services with non-public schools. Also, any local school district may become partially or completely independent of the intermediate unit if (1) the service(s) is to be financed solely with local district funds, and (2) if the interemdiate unit board of directors determines that such independent action will not adversely affect the services to be rendered to the remaining districts by the intermediate unit. (7)

Tennessee Educational Cooperative Act

House Bill No. 1149, signed into law on February 27, 1970, established permissive legislation to enable local school districts and/or local governmental units to cooperate in any way feasible in order to provide better services at more economical costs. (8)

The effect of this law seems to permit maximum flexibility for local school and governmental units in developing cooperative programs. However, local responsibilities for traditional services provided remain intact along with the basic or original governmental unit(s). The law provides for wide degrees of control or veto power by the state attorney general and by the affected reference group(s) within the structure of the state government. All financial arrangements are developed at the local levels subject to approval at the appropriate state levels. No special state financial arrangements currently exist for cooperatives.

Texas Regional Education Service Centers (RESC)

The Sixtieth Texas Legislature in 1967 authorized the establishment of 20 Regional Education Service Centers (RESC) in the state. (9) The major functions of these centers were designated as (1) diagnosis,

(2) strategy and development, (3) dissemination and replication, (4) manpower development, and (5) internal program planning and evaluation. (9:1-15)

Although local school district membership is permissive, all districts are represented on the joint committees for planning each center's operations. The policy making group (Board of Directors) is composed of lay members elected by an advisory group (Joint Committee). Advisory groups to each center consist of (1) the joint committee, a professional group representing local school districts and four-year higher education institutions approved for teacher training programs, and (2) an advisory committee, composed of teachers, supervisors and principals served by the RESC. This type of arrangement seems to permit maximum participation and input by professional educator groups while at the same time ultimate control resides with a lay board.

The state provides basic financing for a center from the Minimum Foundation School Fund. This amount is set at $1.00 per student based on the average daily attendance (ADA) in the center's district of service. State priority programs for the centers are encouraged through matching grants with the local districts.

The guidelines for the RESC are established by the State Education Agency (SEA). The operational guidelines of the centers seem to parallel those established by the SEA itself. The state agency guidelines deal with policy while those for the centers deal with local operations. This approach appears to have the effect of extending the influence and effectiveness of the SEA while at the same time providing maximum autonomy and participation of local school districts.

Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Service Agency (CESA)

On June 12, 1964, the Wisconsin Assembly Bill No. 254 created intermediate service units to function "as a convenience for local districts in cooperatively providing special educational services." (10:212-213) The creation of these 19 service units replaced the old system of 51 county superintendents of schools who were elected by popular vote. (11:1)

CESA's are designed to function at a level beneath the local school districts. Their major purpose is to serve as a vehicle whereby local school districts may cooperatively operate any and all services and programs for the improvement of education programs and opportunities.

While the state provides a fixed administrative allotment for the CESAs, no funds or priorities were established for program and/or service operations. This was left entirely to the local school districts to plan and finance on a shared basis. No taxing power or specific supervisory functions were designated for the CESAs. However, promoting consolidation of local school units into larger, more efficient units was designated as a function of CESA. This has caused considerable anxiety and apprehension among many local educators and citizens' groups and has manifested itself in some opposition to CESA's within the state.

The success of the CESA is greatly dependent upon the abilities and skills of chief executives designated as "coordinators." However, the absence of any state priorities for programs and services as well as state financial incentives has caused difficulties for many of the CESAs in reaching their potentials. Many officials involved in a current state study of the CESAs feel that some state priorities should be established for the CESA units with additional state funds for program operational purposes. Others feel that a limited tax levying authority for the agencies might help.

New Hampshire-Vermont Interstate School Compact

On June 3, 1969, both houses of the United States Congress approved the New Hampshire-Vermont Interstate School Compact. (12) This permissive legislation authorized the two states to formulate plans for the establishment and operations of an interstate school district. The major purpose of this act was to improve educational opportunities within the two states, and specifically at or near their boundaries.

Governance of the interstate school district was to be by an elected interstate board of directors subject to the approval of both the New Hampshire and the Vermont State Boards of Education.

This unique arrangement has important implications for other states with similar problems of providing adequate educational opportunities at or near their boundaries due to problems of finances, law, population, density, etc.

III. ANALYSIS OF STATE LEGISLATION PERMITTING AND/OR ESTABLISHING EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES/ INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

The following discussion of extant legal features derives from an analysis of the various state laws concerning educational cooperatives and/or intermediate school service agencies. The major categories presented result from a matrix which was developed as data were collected directly from the state legislative acts. This matrix appears as Attachment B to this Chapter.*

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*The reader is cautioned against making any conclusions or generalizations about the matrix analysis of any state's legislation as it appears in Attachment B. This analysis results from a strict interpretation of each state's legislation. The matrix analysis reflects only what is stated explicitly in the legislation and not what the educational cooperatives and/or intermediate school districts may be doing or are allowed to do. The reader is referred to the appropriate state department of education's rules, regulations, and guidelines.

Kinds of Legislation

Thirty-three states were identified as having legislation that permitted the existence of educational cooperatives and/or intermediate school districts. Two states (Missouri and North Carolina) reported no legislation to prevent school systems from cooperating; however, a cooperative could not be established as a separate legal organization.

California, Michigan, Oregon and Pennsylvania mandate local school district participation in some cooperative structure. Among the twelve states that reported no legislation regarding educational cooperatives, it was not possible to determine whether any had laws strictly prohibiting cooperation among local school districts. Twenty-nine states have permissive legislation about educational cooperatives. Twelve states have legislation permitting "body corporate status". (At the time of this writing--Fall, 1970--the authors were unable to ascertain whether legislation of any kind existed in five states.)

An interstate compact sanctioned by the United States Congress exists between New Hampshire and Vermont. The major purpose of this act is to permit cooperation between the two states in providing educational opportunities for citizens living near the contiguous state boundaries.

In some states cooperative organizations operate below the level of the local school districts. This arrangement prevents setting up a bureaucratic structure between LEAs and the SEA. Also, the strength of the cooperative rests with the value and utility of services that such an organization might provide local school districts on a non-coercive basis.

Each of the states with legislation relative to educational cooperatives prescribes methods for establishing public accountability and control over such cooperatives.

Financial Arrangements

Many different kinds of financial arrangements exist for financing a public organization. Eight states permit tax levying authority by the cooperative. No states with cooperative legislation prevent tax funds from being used to finance cooperative activities.

Some of the states actively encourage the use of local taxes for cooperative use through state financing incentives provided for in the legislation. Two states (Ohio and Texas) have state-local matching arrangements to encourage the use of local funds. New York has a similar arrangement for some programs. Virginia legislation penalizes LEA's (on a non-reimbursement basis) if state money is used for cooperation across LEA district boundaries.

California, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Texas and Wisconsin have arrangements for some minimum level of funding by the state on a yearly basis. Michigan and several other states enjoy limited guaranteed state funding for certain programs on an annual basis.

Nearly all of the cooperatives are permitted to receive federal, state and local funds as well as gifts, donations, and foundation grants.

Task or Function

Most of the states permit wide latitude relative to the activities in which a cooperative may engage. The cooperative for the most part is able to provide any services desired by the participating school districts. Some states permit the cooperatives to contract with as few as one school system to provide a desired service or program. Others mandate certain programs and services that must be performed or provided by the cooperative. To summarize, the cooperatives, for the most part, are able to administer and/or to provide any programs or services that any local board of education may legally provide.

Organizational Structure

The organizational structures of the educational cooperatives are similar to the wide range of structures that exist for public education across the country. Each state legislates methods for holding any public organization accountable and responsible to the public and/or its elected officials. The typical organizational structure for educational cooperatives consists of a lay board, a professional advisory committee, and an appointed chief executive. Accountability and responsibility are primarily to the cooperative's own board and constituent school districts.

Personnel

Personnel that are mentioned in state legislation for education parallel those that are found in the nation's public schools. Of particular importance, however, is that educational cooperatives are able to provide shared personnel for two or more school systems to effect better economy as well as program offerings and services. This type of sharing is particularly important as it might involve highly specialized, highly salaried and scarce specialists that few small school systems alone can afford. Cooperatives are not restricted in the kind of personnel they might employ by traditional state regulations, certification requirements, etc.

Stated Salaries

Two states (California and Wisconsin) specify the salary range of the chief administrator of their educational cooperatives. Most states are either silent on the subject of salary or they delegate the salary scheduling responsibilities for all personnel to the controlling board of the individual educational cooperative.

Legal Minimum Size

Only four states (Colorado, Michigan, Ohio, and Texas) speak to the question of minimum size for an educational cooperative and/or intermediate school district. The stated minimum sizes range from 5,000 to 50,000 pupils with Texas making special concessions to rural school districts. The other states are silent on this matter in the legislation. Usually the legislation suggests that the member districts be contiguous.

Supervisory Program Accountability

Ultimately, program accountability of any public agency created by the state is to the public and/or its elected officials. For the most part, the educational cooperatives are responsible to their clientele, their own boards of control, the state superintendent and the state education agency.

Supervisory Line Powers

Only those educational cooperatives and/or intermediate school districts that operate in some area(s) of responsibility as arms of the state department of education possess any supervisory line powers over local school districts. States that have legislated specific line power enforcement capabilities to educational cooperatives and/or intermediate school districts include California, Iowa, Michigan, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, North Dakota and Wyoming.

Housing-Property Arrangements

Most states permit educational cooperatives to own property by some means. In New York State the voters must approve the purchase or building of real properties for the BOCES units which is then handled through the State Dormitory Authority. Florida, Illinois, and West Virginia specify that any real properties must be held in the name of the local school district in which they reside. Several states permit joint ownership of properties.

The results of this study of state legal arrangements for educational cooperatives seem to indicate several emerging trends for educational cooperatives. These trends deal with questions of permissiveness, salary, retirement, tenure, financing and evaluation.*

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*For additional information related to this, see Chapter entitled Intermediate Educational Service Agencies.

States that have permissive legislation in regard to cooperation between school districts and program operations seem to be less restrictive. This tends to promote local initiative and creativity in achieving the desired results from cooperative endeavors. Where permissiveness prevails in regard to LEA operations, and some financial incentives exist from the state, the likelihood of a healthy dynamic cooperative is enhanced. However, a delicate balance is necessary in order that local initiative is not destroyed by an overburden of state requirements.

One key to the success of educational cooperatives as with any other organization is dependent upon the quality of the personnel. Salary and other employment fringe benefits (retirement, tenure, insurance, etc.) seem important in attracting a high quality of personnel to educational cooperatives. The attraction of good personnel seems enhanced when salaries are left to the controlling board of the educational cooperative.

Although no state law provides tenure for educational cooperative personnel with the cooperative, retirement and other fringe benefits are provided by the state. This is usually done through existing programs for regular state employed personnel. These benefits are able to be continued if employment is transferred to another educational or governmental agency within the state.

Many states have found that some program operating costs must be provided by the state. State-local matching or other financial incentive arrangements seem particularly effective especially if the state legislates or mandates some program priorities. LEAs should not be restricted in the use of local tax revenue funds for cooperative endeavors.

Program evaluation is increasingly being written in cooperative legislation. This seems to force a review of program operations and their effectiveness at regular time intervals. Also, program "spin offs" to individual LEAs are enhanced through evaluative efforts. This also helps to keep the cooperative programs fresh, dynamic, and more on the "cutting edge" of newer educational programming and practices. The results are positive in the same directions for the participating LEAs.

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ATTACHMENT A

OUTLINE OF SEVEN STATES' LEGISLATIVE MODELS FOR ESTABLISHING EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES AND/OR INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Nebraska Service Units

Basic legislative provisions of Nebraska's legislative enactment L B 301 are as follows:

1. Establishment of boundaries of each of the 19 service areas which cover all areas of the state ranging from two to nine counties.
2. Each service unit is governed by a board elected by the people. Each county in the unit is entitled to elect one member, and four members are to be elected at large by all the people.
3. Powers granted are similar to those granted local boards of education.
4. Boards are empowered to appoint an experienced, qualified educator.
5. Boards may appoint other staff as needed upon recommendation of their administrator.
6. Boards are empowered to levy a tax (with limit) on all real and personal property within the boundaries of the educational service unit.
7. Boards may enter into contractual arrangements with other educational agencies and receive state and federal funds.
8. Boards can acquire property by lease or purchase.
9. Boards may directly administer and operate programs for districts served on a contractual basis.
10. Participating local school districts are to assist in the planning and coordination of services rendered.
11. Boards are responsible for administering federally financed programs for districts that are not properly organized to be eligible to receive federal funds or the sums would be too small for effectiveness.
12. Provisions are spelled out that will permit any county to withdraw or to be included by vote of its populace.

13. The State Board of Education is authorized to make necessary rules and regulations to properly administer and make effective the law.

14. The board is to conduct a survey of each unit area to establish need and possible solutions to educational problems. (7: 56-62)

New York Boards of Cooperative Education Services (BOCES)

An analysis of the legislation establishing the BOCES units in the state of New York reveals the following characteristics: (6)

1. School districts not a part of an intermediate district may vote to become part of a BOCES unit and must be approved by the State Commissioner of Education.

2. Each component district is limited to five votes on any matters pertaining to BOCES. Terms of board are five years.

3. BOCES in contiguous supervisory districts may cooperate to perform programs and services.

4. All expenses and cost of BOCES are divided by weighted formula among participating districts. Each local district can levy and collect taxes.

5. Functions and services are not limited by law, but must be paid for by the local districts.

6. BOCES units may receive funds, gifts, and contract with any public agency to perform services.

7. State funds for BOCES approved services rendered to local districts are paid by state at one-half the total cost.

8. Annual meetings of boards of educations and school trustees must be held to determine annual budget, services, etc.

9. BOCES units can rent, own, accept property or sell when authorized by qualified voters on the board.

10. State will make financial transfers from local districts to BOCES units for services rendered local units.

11. All BOCES profits at end of each year must be reallocated back to its member school districts on or according to a weighted formula.

12. Two or more BOCES units may consolidate or cooperate.

13. Property owned by BOCES is tax exempt but not exempt for properties rented.

14. On matters pertaining to purchases of buildings, lands, or properties, public meetings must be held after public notice as prescribed by law, and all eligible voters or citizens present have right to vote. (6)

New Hampshire-Vermont Interstate School Compact

On June 3, 1969, both houses of the United States Congress approved or consented to the New Hampshire-Vermont Interstate School Compact. (12)

Some of the items in the bill are as follows:

1. Purposes are to increase educational opportunities by creating arrangements whereby adequate size, finances, etc., might make quality education more available and abundant within the two states.

2. Permit the two state boards of education to adopt and formulate plans for cooperative arrangements subject to approval of both state boards for grades K-12.

3. To establish an Interstate School District Planning Committee to study advisability of establishing an interstate school district.

Some of the powers of the interstate school district are:

1. To acquire, construct, extend, improve, staff, operate, manage, and govern public schools within its boundaries.

2. To sue and be sued.

3. To have a seal and to change it.

4. To enter into contract and incur debts.

The interstate school district shall be governed by an elected interstate Board of Directors with all pursuant powers and duties thereof. (12)

Pennsylvania Intermediate School Units

An analysis of House Bill No. 40 presented in the General Assembly of Pennsylvania, Session of 1969 on January 22, 1969, and as amended on July 15, 1969, reveals the major characteristics for the establishment of a state system of intermediate school units within the State of Pennsylvania.

They are as follows:

1. Every school district is assigned to and is entitled to receive services of an intermediate unit as adopted by the intermediate unit board of directors for grades K-12. (Sixty-six school districts were divided into 29 intermediate school units. The cities of Pittsburgh and Philadelphia are established as separate units.)

2. Any school district may apply for transfer to another intermediate unit if (1) its boundaries are contiguous to it, along with a written request stating reasons to the State Board of Education, (2) the written consent or disapproval of all school districts in both involved intermediate units, and (3) upon approval of the State Board of Education.

3. Intermediate units may affect merger with approval of majority of all local districts involved in both units and upon the approval of the State Board of Education.

4. The State Board of Education is responsible for adopting such regulations and guidelines as necessary for successful operation of intermediate units.

5. Program of Services formerly provided by and all powers formerly reserved to the county boards of school directors are transferred to the intermediate units, including vocational-technical education and special pupil services.

6. Subsidies for services are acceptable from other sources.

7. Each intermediate unit Board of Directors, except units comprised of a single school district, shall have nine members chosen for three year terms from among members of school directors of school districts within the unit. Votes are weighted according to average daily attendance of the school districts relative to that of the total intermediate unit.

8. Annual convention for each unit must be called by executive director in April to (1) elect members to the units Boards of Directors, (2) approve budgets, (3) consider matters related to the improving of education in the district, and (4) other business as necessary.

9. The executive director is to be appointed by the Board of Directors and other assistant directors, personnel, etc., on recommendation of the executive director. Elected term of the director is for four years, and he must hold appropriate state commission or license issued by State Board of Education. He is eligible for continued re-election.

10. Program of intermediate unit services to be provided are:
    - (1) Curriculum development and instructional improvement services.
    - (2) Educational planning services.
    - (3) Instructional materials services.
    - (4) Continuing professional education services.
    - (5) Pupil personnel services.
    - (6) State and Federal agency liaison services.
    - (7) Management services.
    - (8) Conduct classes and schools for exceptional children.
    - (9) Educational broadcasting.
    - (10) Audio-visual libraries.
    - (11) Area technical and vocational-technical schools.
    - (12) Instructional media center(s).
    - (13) To contract for special services with a majority number of local districts that want any programs not desired by all local districts within the unit.
    - (14) To contract with non-public schools for services and programs in existence.
    - (15) To receive general operating subsidy for state approved programs; local districts must pick up cost for programs and services beyond those provided by the state.
    - (16) To receive capital subsidy for equipment, building, etc., as may be necessary.
    - (17) A school district may become partially or completely independent of the intermediate unit if (a) the service(s) is to be financed solely with local district funds, and (b) if the intermediate unit board of directors determine that the quality of such service(s) is adequate and that such independent action will not adversely affect the services to be rendered to the remaining districts by the intermediate unit.
    - (18) Annual financial reports and auditing (by independent firm) must be submitted to the Superintendent of Public Instruction by each intermediate unit director.
    - (19) Other services as may be requested by local school districts and the State Board of Education. (7)

Tennessee Educational Cooperative Act

House Bill No. 1149 was passed and signed into law by Governor Buford Ellington on February 27, 1970. The purpose of this bill was to establish permissive legislation to enable local school districts and local governmental units to cooperate financially and to participate in shared programs and services. (8)

Basic arrangements contained in the legislation are as follows:

1. Authority is established for joint or cooperative actions of political subdivision in accordance with the powers, privileges, or authority vested in their governing bodies.

2. Cooperation may occur between any two or more public agencies with permissive ordinances of their affected local governing bodies.

3. Cooperative agreements must specify: (a) duration; (b) precise organization composition; (c) purpose or purposes of joint action; (d) manner of financing, establishing, and maintaining budgets; and (e) arrangements for terminating agreement and disposal of jointly owned properties. If a legal entity is established, the agreement must in addition to the above specify: (f) provisions for an administrator or a joint board responsible for administration of the project.

4. Permission is given to place school facilities, services, etc., under a Board of Control in accord with the agreement provided that the established legal functions are continued at least the same level as before. Public agencies are not relieved of any previously assigned responsibilities.

5. All agreements must be approved by the State Attorney General, the Commissioner of Education or by whatever state agency is affected by the joint agreement.

6. Joint ownership between two or more agencies is permitted; they also may sell, buy, rent, or lease properties.

7. Joint ventures may be financed by law and are empowered to levy taxes and issue bonds.

8. The parties involved must permit themselves to be liable to be sued and/or to sue to recoup any damages or liabilities.

9. Contractual arrangements may be entered into by any public agency with any other agency or agencies to perform governmental services with approval of the State Attorney General and the affected state agency. (8)

Texas Regional Centers

In 1967, the Sixtieth Texas Legislature authorized the establishment of 20 regional Education Service Centers in the State. The major functions of these centers are to conduct regional planning within broad state framework, to assist local school districts in planning and strengthening their education program, and to provide services which local school districts cannot effectively and efficiently provide for themselves. (9)

The Texas Education Agency has identified the major functional approaches for the regional centers as follows:

1. Diagnostic. Regional surveys of education and manpower needs to assist local districts with pupil appraisal procedures and implementation of data gathering requirements.

2. Strategy and development. Will develop strategies for increasing and improving instructional services to the local education agencies, and assist in the selection of pilot projects in local education agencies.

3. Dissemination and replication. Will assist local education agencies with evaluation, evaluation design, dissemination of information on a regional basis, and with the renewal and replication of programs.

4. Manpower development. Will develop regional designs based on need and identified training resources, and conduct and evaluate inservice training programs for local school districts in their region--focusing on areas of acute needs.

5. Internal program planning and evaluation. Will provide input for management information systems, evaluation of internal operations of the center, refinement and renewal of the center, management of internal operations and retraining of center staff members. (9: 1-15)

It is of interest to the writers that the guidelines for the regional educational centers parallel those of the state education agency. The state agency guidelines are stated in the policy making realm and the centers' guidelines are stated in operational and executional realms as they work with local school districts.

Analysis of policies established by the Texas State Board of Education for establishing and operating the regional centers are as follows:

1. Local school district membership is permissive; however, all school districts may be represented on the Joint Committee for planning the centers' operations.

2. An advisory group designated as The Joint Committee is to serve as the advisory body to each Center's Board of Directors. This group is selected by and is responsive to local school districts and four-year higher education institutions for approved teacher training programs. This group also serves in a continuing advisory capacity to the Board of Directors.

3. The Board of Directors, consisting of either five or seven lay members, is the policy-making and appraisal body of the regional centers. The Board of Directors are elected by The Joint Committee.

4. The Executive Director of the center is elected by the Board of Directors.

5. An advisory Committee to the Board of Directors is to consist of teachers, supervisors and principals from the school districts served by the center.

6. Financial resources are provided through a combination of state, federal, local and private sources. They may be through direct appropriations or on a matching funds basis from the state, federal grants, and contractual arrangements, for services received by participating local school systems.

7. The centers' activities and/or functions are determined by the local school districts, the Advisory Committee, the Joint Committee, Board of Directors, and as requested by the State Board of Education and the State Commissioner of Education.

8. The State Board of Education reviews the assignment of counties to regions annually and makes realignments as may become necessary.

9. Annual operational reports are made by Centers to State Board of Education.

10. All boundary lines must coincide with county lines except when a school district is in two or more counties, in which case it shall be served by the region encompassing its county of jurisdiction.

11. Location of Centers are determined by the Board of Directors with approval by the State Board of Education.

12. A media satellite center may be located in regions determined by the Board of Directors with approval by the State Board of Education. Any satellite center may withdraw its membership from a regional education service center if desired but all media and materials acquired shall remain with the center.

13. A public school district may establish eligibility for receiving media services by action of local board of trustees with appropriate share of cost and compliance with policies established by the State Board of Education.

14. Any school district may elect to discontinue the receiving of media or other services from the center for the succeeding scholastic year; however, title to all materials and properties remain with the center.

15. Board of Directors (quorum of five) shall meet quarterly by established rules, and shall serve without pay except for expenses.

16. Employees of the regional education service centers are eligible to contribute and participate in the Texas System of Teacher Retirement.

17. Comprehensive Planning Councils for centers must be established and shall consist of the executive director, the Commissioner of Education in cooperation with the Texas Education Agency, member schools and institutions of higher education.

18. State funds for financing the centers are set at an annual amount of one dollar ($1.00) per student based on the ADA in the center's district of service. These funds shall come from the State Minimum Foundation School Fund.

19. Local funds for matching purposes from local sources must be paid annually and deposited in the center's depository bank.

20. Annual auditing, accounting, etc., of the center's operations must be done in a like manner as for the local public schools.

21. Services provided by the centers must be evaluated by the center's staff, the Advisory Committee of Teachers, supervisors, and principals from participating districts served, the Joint Committee, the Board of Directors via statistical surveys, summary of services, and statement of intent from each participating school district; and by the Texas Education Agency.

22. Centers must assume key roles in stimulation and carrying out of Title III programs.

23. The Texas Education Agency is required to prescribe rules and regulations under which local districts enter into contracts or accept monies from any agency of the Federal Government.

24. The centers may recommend additional projects for funding if priorities for funding are met. (9:18-20)

Wisconsin Cooperative Educational Service Agency (CESA)

In 1961, Angus B. Rothwell, the newly elected State Superintendent of Public Instruction, "called together a representative statewide committee to make recommendations for legislation which would provide a new structure to succeed the county superintendent." (10: 213)

The committee's recommendations were incorporated into Assembly Bill No. 254 and on June 12, 1964, it was passed as Chapter 565 to be effective on July 1, 1965. This legislation created service units "as a convenience for local districts in cooperatively providing special educational services." (10:212-213)

> On July 1, 1965, Wisconsin's system of county superintendents of schools, elected by popular vote, came to an end. Successor to it in a redefined and altered role is a system of regional Cooperative Educational Service Agencies, each of which employs a Coordinator selected by a Board of Control of School Board Members of the area. (14: 1)

The 51 county superintendency offices were replaced by 19 Cooperative Educational Service Agencies (CESA).

A statement of purpose from the introductory wording of the law (S116.01) reads:

> The organization of school districts in Wisconsin is such that the legislature recognizes the need for a service unit between the local school district and the state superintendent. The cooperative educational service agencies created under sub-chapter II of Chapter 39, 1963 statutes, are designed to serve educational needs in all areas of Wisconsin and as a convenience for school districts in cooperatively providing teachers, students, school boards, administrators and other, special educational services including, without limitation because of enumeration, such programs as research, special student classes, data collection, processing and dissemination, inservice programs and liaison between the state and local school districts. (11: 2)

Other major features of the Wisconsin Intermediate School Legislation includes the following:

1. Each agency shall consist of a contiguous group of school districts.
2. Its Board of Control shall consist of 11 School Board members from as many school districts in the agency area.
3. It has no jurisdictional responsibility over school districts.
4. It has no taxing power; but receives up to $29,000 annual state aids for administrative expenses. (Legislation is currently proposed to raise this amount to $35,000.)
5. Its professional head must be certified school administrator selected by the Board of Control and designated with the term, Coordinator.
6. The administrator of each school district is a member of the statutory Professional Advisory Committee of the agency.
7. The agency exists to provide, cooperatively, needed services to individual districts by contract with the district boards.
8. A school district accepts and pays for only those services for which it has contracted.
9. The agency may provide any service that a school district may provide.
10. The agency serves as a liaison between the state and local districts but it is not an arm of the Department of Public Instruction.
11. The agency appoints a lay committee of seven members which has a statutory function in effecting changes in school district boundaries. (11: 1-6)

ATTACHMENT B

MATRIX ANALYSIS OF STATE LEGISLATION FOR EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES AND/OR INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL DISTRICTS*

	Alabama ***	Alaska	Arizona **	Arkansas **	California	Colorado	Connecticut	Delaware ***	Florida	Georgia	Hawaii ***	Idaho	Illinois	Indiana	Iowa	Kansas ***	Kentucky	Louisiana	Maine **	Maryland ***	Massachusetts	Michigan	Minnesota	Mississippi **	Missouri *****	Montana	Nebraska	Nevada ****	New Hampshire ****	New Jersey	New Mexico ***	New York	North Carolina ***	North Dakota	Ohio	Oklahoma ***	Oregon	Pennsylvania	Rhode Island **	South Carolina ***	South Dakota	Tennessee	Texas	Utah	Vermont ****	Virginia ***	Washington	West Virginia	Wisconsin	Wyoming	
Permissive		X				X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X			X		X			X	X		X	X		X		X	X						X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	A Type of Legislation
Body Corporate					X	X						X					X					X					X		X	X					X		X	X			X				X						
Mandatory Local District Participation					X																	X															X	X													
Tax Levying Power										X					X							X					X							X	X		X				X										B Financial Arrangements
Local Districts May Levy Taxes for Cooperative or Interm. District					X								X																			X			X							X							X	X	
State Financial Support					X					X																			X			X			X																
Suggest or Mandate Programs or Services (but not limiting)		X			X	X	X			X		X	X	X	X			X				X					X		X	X		X		X	X		X	X			X		X	X	X		X			X	C Task or Function
Shared Service and Cooperative		X			X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X			X	X	X			X	X		X	X		X		X	X		X	X			X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X	
Prescribes Organizational Structure		X			X	X	X			X		X	X	X	X			X				X				X	X		X	X		X			X		X	X					X		X			X	X	X	D Organizational Structure
Organized on Multi-County and/or Fractional County Basis						X									X														X			X			X			X					X		X				X	X	
Organized on Single County Basis					X																	X													X		X	X			X				X				X	X	
Suggest Personnel (but not limiting)					X	X	X						X		X		X	X				X				X			X	X		X		X	X		X	X			X			X	X					X	E Personnel
Prescribes Qualifications/Job Description for Chief Executive					X	X									X							X								X							X						X						X		
Employee Benefits available From State					X	X	X										X										X		X	X		X						X					X		X						
Board Fixes Salary of Chief Executive						X									X												X		X								X	X							X			X		X	F Salaries
						X																X													X								X								G Estab. Minimum Size
Specifies Supervisory and/or Program Accountability		X			X	X	X		X	X		X	X	X	X		X	X			X	X	X			X	X		X	X		X		X	X		X	X			X	X	X	X	X		X	X	X	X	H Supervisory Program Accountability
Exercises some SDE Supervisory Line Powers over LEA's					X										X							X								X				X			X	X												X	I Supervisory Line Powers
Facilities Financed by State					X	X																							X						X			X							X						J Housing Property Arrangements
Joint Ownership of Property Permitted														X															X													X	X		X						

*See following page for definition of asterisks.

ATTACHMENT B
(Continued)

(These are footnotes to Matrix Chart)

*The reader is cautioned against making any conclusions or generalizations about the analysis of any state's legislation as analyzed on this matrix. This analysis is the result of a limited and strict interpretation of each state's legislation. No attempt whatsoever was made to read anything into the law(s), therefore, the matrix analysis reflects only what is stated explicitly in the legislation and not what the educational cooperatives and/or intermediate school districts might be doing or are allowed to do within each state. For this information, the reader is referred to the appropriate and related state department of education's rules, regulations and guidelines pertaining thereof.

Efforts to have the legal department in each state and/or each state's department of education to review the analysis of their state laws for purposes of accuracy and verification are incomplete at the time of writing.

**Unable to secure copy of legislation.

***No legislation - as reported via correspondence with the state departments of education.

****(1) Federal Interstate Compact.

*****(2) Legislation does not permit the establishment of cooperatives as separate legal organizations.

CHAPTER VII

PERSONNEL FOR EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

I. INTRODUCTION

Personnel employed by various educational cooperatives provide insights into the operations of these regional educational agencies. The pervasiveness of educational cooperatives made an exhaustive compilation of personnel impractical. (For example, in 1969-70 nearly 4200 professional personnel were employed in New York State's BOCES). However, analyses were made of personnel in selected cooperatives and the results are presented in this section. Of most importance are the kinds of personnel and the identification of emerging new professional roles and evident trends in personnel needs. The nomenclature for positions in regional education agencies was different from state to state and from cooperative to cooperative. The staff took some license in categorizing personnel based upon available job descriptions.

General broad headings for personnel classifications used in the study included a level classified as:

1. General or agency-wide administration and specialists.
2. Supervisor, director, coordinator,and consultant, including personnel with specific program administrative duties.
3. Subject-matter specialists or itinerant teachers.
4. Supporting staff, both a) professionals, including such services as social, psychological, medical, pupil personnel, etc., and b) non-professionals
5. Outside consultants and others.

---

* A position classified as two (director, coordinator, supervisor, or consultant) meant that this role had major program responsibilities and/or supervision over a staff. This is akin to the director or supervisor level in a large school organization. (If a person worked directly with schools, he was classified as three, a subject specialist or itinerant teacher.) Level two had responsibilities for a number of schools and many personnel often served as a resource for faculties of constituent school districts in the cooperative.

In some cases the data were obtained from reports from the state education agency of the numbers and types of personnel presently working in cooperative arrangements in the state; in other cases data were obtained from project reports or from interviews and site visits.*

Figure 1 provides a summary of personnel requirements in one well-developed intermediate educational service unit by showing the organizational flow chart.** Figure 2, page portrays a summary of the statewide regional education agency personnel needs in the BOCES structure of New York State. The numbers of personnel in each of the major personnel classifications are shown. The total of nearly 4200 professional personnel in one kind of regional education agency of just one state (although it is the largest of the state-wide regional education programs and, therefore, not representative) suggests that provision of personnel for such agencies could be a major concern of higher education and inservice training directors. Figures 1 and 2 demonstrate the extent and diversity of personnel positions in regional agencies. Figure 3, page 150, provides a summary of different position classifications used to condense the multitude of positions that were reported. For Figure 3, the staff interpreted the position description as given in the raw data to attempt to show the broad classifications of personnel employed by educational cooperatives.

From a review of Figure 1 it is clear that a well-developed regional agency provides a spectrum of services for the constituent local districts and that the staff is complex. Figure 2 shows the relative numbers of the various personnel used in the statewide network of regional agencies. Occupational and special education account for nearly three quarters of all personnel positions; administrative and management services account for only about five percent of the personnel positions.

Figure 3 shows the general relative usage of personnel in the cooperatives. For example, school study or development councils and industry education cooperatives, have very little direct service to pupils (such as instruction), and thus, do not employ teachers or other persons to work directly with youth.

A comparison of the services provided by regional educational agencies also helped to identify personnel needs and trends of the organizations.

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*Attachments to this chapter show the expansion of the position classifications that are summarized in Figures 2 and 3 and identify various cooperatives that were reviewed in detail for this chapter.

**The reader is also referred to other organizational charts that appear throughout the study, especially in chapters II and III, Intermediate Educational Service Agencies and Voluntary Cooperatives.

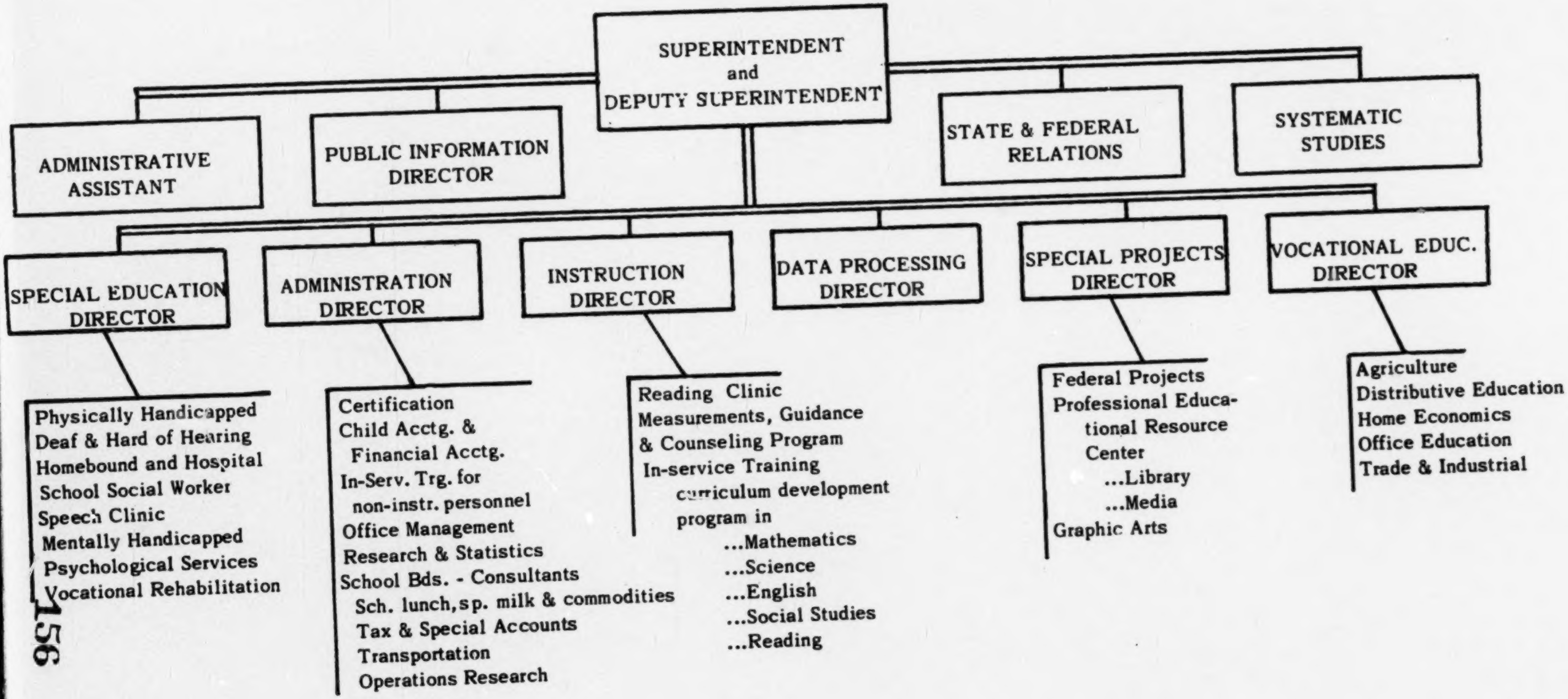
SUPERINTENDENT and DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENT
ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANT
PUBLIC INFORMATION DIRECTOR
STATE & FEDERAL RELATIONS
SYSTEMATIC STUDIES
SPECIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR
Physically Handicapped
Deaf & Hard of Hearing
Homebound and Hospital
School Social Worker
Speech Clinic
Mentally Handicapped
Psychological Services
Vocational Rehabilitation
ADMINISTRATION DIRECTOR
Certification
Child Acctg. & Financial Acctg.
In-Serv. Trg. for non-instr. personnel
Office Management
Research & Statistics
School Bds. - Consultants
Sch. lunch, sp. milk & commodities
Tax & Special Accounts
Transportation
Operations Research
INSTRUCTION DIRECTOR
Reading Clinic
Measurements, Guidance & Counseling Program
In-service Training
curriculum development program in
...Mathematics
...Science
...English
...Social Studies
...Reading
DATA PROCESSING DIRECTOR
SPECIAL PROJECTS DIRECTOR
Federal Projects
Professional Educational Resource Center
...Library
...Media
Graphic Arts
VOCATIONAL EDUC. DIRECTOR
Agriculture
Distributive Education
Home Economics
Office Education
Trade & Industrial

Figure 1.

The Oakland Schools, Pontiac, Michigan, Organizational Flow Chart Demonstrates the Range and Scope of Services and Personnel Needs of a well-developed Intermediate Education Unit.

SUMMARY OF PERSONNEL:

NEW YORK STATE BOCES*

A ITINERANT TEACHER SERVICE	1 ART	82.5		
	2 DRIVER EDUCATION	76.9		
	3 FOREIGN LANGUAGE	19.6		
	4 INDUSTRIAL ARTS	17.5		
	5 LIBRARIAN	18.9		
	6 MUSIC	89.9		
	7 PHYSICAL EDUCATION	36.5		
	8 READING	49.3	SUBTOTAL	391.1
B ADMINISTRATIVE AND MANAGEMENT SERVICES	1 CONSULTANT SERVICES	77.4		
	2 COORDINATORS AND SUPERVISORS	144.3		
	3 COMMUNICATIONS CENTER	31.0		
	4 DATA PROCESSING	29.0		
	5 LIBRARY PROCESSING	6.0	SUBTOTAL	287.7
C PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES	1 CHILD ADJUSTMENT OR GUIDANCE CENTERS	4.0		
	2 DENTAL HYGIENE	88.6		
	3 GUIDANCE DIRECTOR OR COUNSELOR	44.6		
	4 NURSE TEACHER OR ATTENDANCE	33.0		
	5 PSYCHOLOGICAL PSYCHIATRIC SERVICES	175.0		
	6 SOCIAL WORKER	32.1	SUBTOTAL	377.3
D SPECIAL EDUCATION	1 MENTALLY HANDICAPPED	794.2		
	2 PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED	345.3		
	3 EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED	249.0		
	4 SPEECH AND HEARING CORRECTION	175.9	SUBTOTAL	1564.4
E OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION	1 OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION	1311.4		
	2 ADULT OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION	132.0	SUBTOTAL	1443.4
F GIFTED AND ENRICHMENT	GIFTED AND ENRICHMENT	101.0	SUBTOTAL	101.0
G MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES	MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES	33.7	SUBTOTAL	33.7
			TOTAL	4198.6

Figure 2.

Personnel Summary from a Statewide Educational

Intermediate Service Agency

*Summarized from "Boards of Cooperative Services, 1969-70, Teachers and Programs Approved," The University of the State of New York, The State Education Department, Bureau of School District Organization, Albany, New York. This table is a summary of actual titles which appear as Attachment A.

Frequency of Personnel Employment by Cooperative Type*

CLASSIFICATION	USUAL TITLE OR GENERAL DESCRIPTION	Intermediate Regional Agency	Voluntary Cooperative	Study or Development Council	Industry Education Coop.
Agency or General Administration or Specialist**	Executive Secretary or Director, Superintendent; Assistants or Associates. (usually one person per activity).	yes	yes	yes	yes
Program Administration	Coordinator, Supervisor, Consultant, Director, (Program or staff supervision or administration).	many	some	few	few
Direct service to schools - pupils and staff	Subject specialist; itinerant or shared staff	many	some	no	no
Supportive Staff A-Professional: Services such as social, psychological, transportation, pupil personnel, diagnostic, medical and dental	Described by designation, i.e., nurse, psychologist, intern, graduate assistant, or programmer	many	some	some[#]	few
B-Classified or Non-Professional	Secretary, clerk, aide, specialist	yes	yes	yes	yes
Outside consultants and Others	Consultant (short-term assistance)	few	some	many	many

---

*General description of usage of personnel. "Yes" indicates the "normal" frequency to operate or maintain the agency. "No" indicates the position is seldom found. Many - some - or few are comparative and relative.

**This classification includes some of the unique or innovative positions (such as planner, communicator, researcher, developer, in-service director, special and/or federal projects and legislative liaison) and is probably of more interest than other classifications in terms of trends and developments.

#Especially Graduate Assistants

Figure 3.

General Personnel Classification Showing Relative Frequency of Personnel Employment by Major Types of Cooperative of Regional Agencies.

II. DISCUSSION OF SELECTED POSITIONS

As functions of the regional education agency become clearly identified, staff positions are developed to carry out the functions. As functions and services of cooperatives were reviewed, special note was made of various personnel responsibilities in order to identify roles that are not "common" to contemporary education jargon. (Examples of these positions or roles are: state and federal relations, planner, re-designer, communicator.)

In some cases a function of the cooperative is not carried out by an individual staff member, but is a committee responsibility. (*e.g.*, the legal and legislative committee of the Suburban School Districts of St. Louis, where a committee works with the legislature and the courts to provide better services for pupils.) There are at the least two other ways of providing services of coordination with the legislature. This activity can be assigned to a single staff member (Oakland Schools, Pontiac, Michigan) to work directly with the legislature (as a "lobbyist," but with the title of state and federal relations.) The Western New York School Development Council conducts workshops to inform legislators about trends, needs, and accomplishments of education. In either case the ends appear to be the same: better communications between schools, social agencies, and policy makers.*

A major function of many cooperatives is providing special education services, a logical function since many small districts cannot afford this spectrum of services. Thus, many cooperatives have staff in various areas of mental exceptionality ranging from "gifted" through "trainable", as well as for physically handicapped. As need for providing expanded services for exceptional children increases, the regional agencies seem to be employing personnel skilled in diagnosing physical or mental handicaps and in providing basic remedial, psychological, medical and hygenic services for schools.

Many regional education agencies make extensive use of professional staff--from teachers with four or more years of training to highly trained technical specialists such as programmers to psychologists and those providing medical services. Other cooperatives obtain and employ staff in different ways.

The trend in school study and/or development councils, due both to financial limitations and the kinds of services provided, is to make extensive use of advanced graduate students under the supervision of professional staff (which may be on a part-time assignment from the sponsoring institution of higher education). Often these graduate students--called research associates, staff associates, council fellows, or some other similar title--are serving internships and/or conducting doctoral research in support of, or in cooperation with, council activities.

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*In general, in this chapter organizations or states are cited as examples rather than publications; citations are regarded as examples only--no evaluation of program or attempt to be all-inclusive is made.

Some cooperatives employ interns or graduate assistants; the close connection between some cooperative endeavors and higher education encourages use of graduate students to assist in program activities, as well as using the cooperative as a training ground for advanced students. Some cooperatives use graduate students under supervision to initiate and operate new or "high risk" projects on a trial basis (e.g.; Tennessee--comprehensive psychological services). This procedure has several benefits not only to the student (experience and remuneration) but also to the agency which can try an idea without making a comittment for permanent staff until after the program proves itself.

Some regional education agencies apparently received their impetus from an original interest in shared media services (e.g., Pennsylvania, Texas, Iowa). As educators make more varied use of media and technology, the regional agencies are providing more specialists in media utilization, as well as technicians for the production of audio-visual materials. Some cooperatives employ staff to develop media "packages" to assist teachers in the presentation of concepts to their classes (e.g., Rural Supplementary Education Center, Stamford, N.Y.; Regional Educational Service Centers, Texas).

Along with expanded media services, some cooperatives have a major responsibility in providing educational television (e.g.; Dade County, Florida; St. Louis). In these situations the personnel of the agency include directors, producers, television teachers (often on loan) and the technical and supporting staff to operate the program and studio.

The increased need for the continuing education of teachers (inservice) and the inaccessability of colleges to many schools apparently has encouraged cooperatives to employ inservice directors to plan multi-district regional inservice programs. Personnel in this category may also be engaged in training activities for paraprofessionals (aides) and some professional staff (preservice and inservice), especially in programs recently sponsored through the Education Professions Development Act (e.g., Texas, Tennessee, Pennsylvania).

Regional education agencies employ staff to implement new or marginal programs, often in response to current social trends or demands. This is exemplified by the fact that some cooperatives have specialists for such things as drug abuse, (e.g., Texas), humanities (e.g., Ohio, Education Research Council), civil rights programs (e.g., Texas), and youth leadership programs (e.g., Dilenowisco, Virginia; Bucks County, Pennsylvania; San Diego County, California).

The Texas Regional Educational Service Centers have employed at least one "planner" and one "communicator" for each agency. Since the Texas State Education Agency could not find an institution of higher education that prepared educational planners, it contracted with General Learning Corporation to develop a training program. Twenty planners were trained for regional agencies. Each of the twenty was responsible for conducting for local school districts in his region a similar workshop so that a "multiplier effect" was accomplished. (Thus, each local district developed an "educational planner" to work directly with the regional planners.)

With the increased emphasis on planning (a necessary activity in the face of demands for evaluation, accountability and more "businesslike" administration), it is evident that cooperatives will include personnel to facilitate this function. Recently (1970) the Appalachian Regional Commission (ARC) made planning funds available to several educational cooperatives or regional education agencies in Appalachia. The cooperatives have personnel to collect base-line data and to initiate elements of program and personnel planning.

A regional education agency is most often seen as a service agency (not only instructional, but also administrative services) for a number of local school districts. The staff, therefore, reflects administrative and service arrangements and contains administrative assistants, personnel in business and purchasing,* in certification and attendance, food services, social work, transportation services, medical, and mental health services etc.

Some regional agencies provide computer and/or data processing activities and services. These cooperatives make use of clerical supporting staff for key punch and routine activity and employ highly trained professionals and technicians for operation of the data processing service (e.g., Oregon, OTIS; BOCES, Erie #1). There seems to be an increase in regional utilization of computer services and facilities which will require expansion of this personnel category.

The cooperative is a logical locus for utilization of external consultant assistance since many local districts within the regional agency have similar problems and can share the benefits of the consultancy as well as the costs. A number of cooperatives indicate that they make extensive usage of part-time consultants. (Some long-term consultant activities were also reported.) Some cooperatives reported using consultants to initiate trial programs prior to their being evaluated and possibly incorporated within the cooperative's program structure. (Due to the nature of consultant services, consultants generally are not considered as personnel of the cooperative.) Consultants are frequently employed for personnel training and to conduct specific studies.

The level of organizational development and the task and function of the cooperative generally dictate the composition of the staff. The major purposes and functions of the cooperative provide a base for evaluating personnel needs. As the cooperative serves more than one district, personnel can be obtained to provide services for marginal programs, allowing local districts to at least participate in new programs before they could afford a full-time staff for the program. The gamble of initiating "high risk" programs can be distributed among a number of local districts with no long-term comittments to staff and program expansion by using the cooperatives as a locus for the program, and by judicious usage of consultants or internships.

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*Economics of cooperative purchasing have been pointed out in a recent study completed in Colorado. Forsythe, R.A. and C.E. Hardin, Guidelines for Cooperative Purchasing Agencies and Procedures for Public School Districts. Available from ERIC Document Reproduction Service. ED 029 485

III. TRENDS AND CONCLUSIONS

Since a regional education agency's primary function is usually not that of classroom instruction, a major purpose is providing other kinds of expert services to the instruction program. Another major function is providing administrative assistance and streamlining for a group of local districts.

It seems reasonable to assume that the regional education agency will continue to assume a role of facilitating administration of schools through cooperative purchasing and use of data processing technology. As repetitive administrative tasks are lightened for already over-burdened administrative and supervisory staffs at local levels, there can be hypothesized reductions both in costs and in duplication of effort.

A third major responsibility of the cooperative is to provide both an organizational structure and those kinds of roles which will encourage program development, innovation and self-renewal. As cooperatives move in this direction, nomenclature for various staff positions may seem a little "far out" in education. For instance, in New York State there are centers in the statewide regional planning network which have roles to deal primarily with planning. Personnel serving in these roles have been tagged "educational redesigners," in keeping with their charge to rethink the educational system from the bottom up.

Planning activities are major thrusts of regional agencies. There is a demand for personnel to engage in educational program and long-range planning. In this planning role, personnel are called upon to supervise status studies and surveys and suggest locations and specifications for new facilities as well as to coordinate with other planning groups and social agencies. This area of personnel seems to be expanding rapidly at the regional basis.

Other often or occasionally-mentioned personnel categories and needs include "communicator" (or public relations or "linker"), evaluator, special or federal programs, and program development.

The move toward community involvement and more local control has spurred a regional agency in Nebraska to initiate a position of "School-Community Coordinator," borrowing from the Mott Foundation Community School concept.

The following position descriptions serve as a summary of the kinds of educational positions appearing in educational cooperatives, although not always by the specific name as given. Some roles have been combined for presentation and may be expanded in well-developed agencies or as demand for services increased. In some cases, a summary of representative activities of the role is included if the title is not self-explanatory.

Educational, Community and/or Regional Planner. Long range planning activities and model design.

Educational Evaluator. Monitors and evaluates new programs of the cooperative and engages in specific evaluation tasks as designated by local districts participating in the cooperative.

Inservice Director. Refines and develops new inservice approaches aimed at continuous upgrading of educational personnel.

Media and Communications Systems Specialist. Maintains and enhances communication flow and aids in media development, utilization, and service.

Program Developer and/or Public Information. Develops proposals and processes information for local schools and/or local district use, as well as preparing brochures or other public information materials. (The Communicator or linker function.)

Federal and/or State Program Coordinator. Maintains files and current information on new federal and state programs and mandates. This person may engage in liaison with the government (lobbying) and attempts to utilize political "clout" or influence for the cooperative.

Personnel Coordinator. Maintains a personnel file for the cooperative and acting with the direction and assistance of local personnel, engages in initial recruitment activities.

Research and Special Programs. Research activities are usually limited, but some will be necessary in development of new programs and in evaluation.

Data Processing Services and Activities. Materials Development (and Clerical Assistance). Develops learning and/or media packages, including a variety of teaching aids, audio-visual materials, etc.

Each of these roles represents possibilities for growth, development, innovation, and change. Most of these roles were included in Level I of the personnel classification scheme, Figure 3, page150. These kinds of roles seem to be those that have promise for rapid development and expansion. Naturally, subject area supervisors and teachers will continue to be a vital part of the personnel picture in cooperatives, but this traditional personnel area will expand more slowly than the "emergent" role, as new demands for education services are put upon schools.

ATTACHMENT A

EXPANDED LIST OF TITLES OF POSITIONS IN NEW YORK STATE

BOCES PROGRAMS: 1969-70

(A) ITINERANT TEACHER SERVICE
- A-1 ART
  - ELEMENTARY ART
- A-2 DRIVER EDUCATION
  - DRIVER EDUCATION SIMULATOR
  - DRIVER TRAINING
- A-3 FOREIGN LANGUAGES
  - FRENCH
  - LATIN
  - SPANISH
- A-4 INDUSTRIAL ARTS
  - MECHANICAL DRAWING
- A-5 LIBRARIAN
  - LIBRARY
  - LIBRARY SCIENCE
- A-6 MUSIC
  - INSTRUMENTAL MUSIC
  - VOCAL MUSIC
- A-7 PHYSICAL EDUCATION
- A-8 READING
  - MOBILE READING CLINIC
  - READING SPECIALIST
  - REMEDIAL READING

(B) ADMINISTRATIVE AND MANAGEMENT SERVICES
- B-1 CONSULTANT SERVICES
  - CONSULTANT - ART
  - CONSULTANT - AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION
  - CONSULTANT - EMPLOYEE RELATIONS
  - CONSULTANT - PSYCHIATRIC SERVICES
  - CONSULTANT - READING
  - COOPERATIVE REVIEW SERVICE
  - IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR ADMINISTRATORS
  - LANGUAGE ARTS WORKSHOP
  - PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT
  - SEMINAR IN SOUTH ASIAN STUDIES
  - TEACHER WORKSHOP - MODERN MATH
  - TEACHER WORKSHOP - INTERGROUP RELATIONS
- B-2 COORDINATORS AND SUPERVISORS
  - AREA PLANNER
  - COORDINATORS -
    - AUDIO-VISUAL
    - CURRICULUM GUIDANCE
    - CURRICULUM AND PERSONNEL
    - DEVELOPMENT READING
    - FEDERAL AID
    - HANDICAPPED
    - NURSE
    - VOCATIONAL INDUSTRIAL
    - VOCATIONAL EDUCATIONAL
  - DIRECTORS -
    - AUDIO-VISUAL
    - EDUCATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS
    - PUPIL PERSONNEL
    - SPECIAL PROGRAM
    - VISUAL AIDS
    - VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
  - DOCTORAL INTERN
  - SUPERVISORS -
    - ELEMENTARY
    - READING
    - SCIENCE
    - SPEECH CORRECTIONIST
    - SPECIAL EDUCATION
    - VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
  - INSTRUCTIONAL RESEARCH SPECIALIST
- B-3 COMMUNICATIONS CENTERS
  - AUDIO VISUAL PROGRAMS
  - SEMI-HANDICAPPED
  - VISUAL AIDS
  - VISUAL EDUCATION
- B-4 DATA PROCESSING
  - IBM SCORING SERVICE
  - TEST SCORING
- B-5 LIBRARY PROCESSING
  - LIBRARY BOOK PROCESSING
  - LIBRARY CATALOGING

ATTACHMENT A (cont'd)

(C) PUPIL PERSONNEL SERVICES

- C-1 CHILD ADJUSTMENT OR GUIDANCE CENTERS
  - GUIDANCE CENTER AND PUPIL ADJUSTMENT
  - TESTING AND COUNSELING CENTERS
- C-2 DENTAL HYGIENE
  - DENTAL HYGIENIST
- C-3 GUIDANCE DIRECTOR OR COUNSELOR
  - GUIDANCE AND GUIDANCE COUNSELOR
- C-4 NURSE TEACHER AND ATTENDANCE
  - ATTENDANCE SUPERVISOR
  - NURSE TEACHER
- C-5 PSYCHOLOGICAL PSYCHIATRIC SERVICES
  - CONSULTING PSYCHIATRIST
  - PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES
  - PSYCHOLOGIST
  - PSYCHOMETRIST
- C-6 SOCIAL WORKER

(D) SPECIAL EDUCATION

- D-1 MENTALLY HANDICAPPED
  - EDUCABLES
  - MENTALLY RETARDED
  - SPECIAL CLASS
  - TRAINABLES
- D-2 PHYSICALLY HANDICAPPED
  - BLIND CHILDREN
  - BRAIN DAMAGED
  - CEREBRAL PALSY
  - DEAF CHILDREN
  - HARD-OF-HEARING RESOURCE ROOM
  - HOME TEACHING
  - LEARNING DISABILITIES
  - MULTIPLE HANDICAPPED
  - ORTHOPEDICALLY HANDICAPPED
  - PERCEPTUALLY HANDICAPPED
  - SIGHT SAVING
  - TEACHER OF APHASIC CHILDREN
  - VISUAL SCREENING
- D-3 EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED
- D-4 SPEECH AND HEARING CORRECTION
  - SPEECH
  - SPEECH CORRECTION
  - SPEECH CORRECTION AND PUBLIC SPEAKING
  - SPEECH AND HEARING FOR THE HANDICAPPED
  - SPEECH THERAPIST

(E) OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

- TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL
  - AIR CONDITIONING, REFRIGERATION
  - APPLIANCE REPAIR
  - AUTO BODY REPAIR
  - AUTO MECHANICS
  - BEAUTY CULTURE
  - BUILDING MAINTENANCE
  - BUILDING TRADES
  - CARPENTRY-MASONRY
  - COSMETOLOGY
  - DRAFTING AND DESIGN
  - ELECTRICAL APPLIANCE
  - ELECTRICITY
  - ENGINEERING DRAFTING
  - FOOD TRADES
  - INDUSTRIAL COOPERATIVE
  - INSTRUMENTATION AND AUTOMATION
  - MACHINE SHOP
  - MACHINE TRADES
  - OCCUPATIONAL SERVICES FOR BOYS
  - OCCUPATIONAL SERVICES FOR GIRLS
  - PRINTING
  - QUANTITY COOKING
  - RADIO AND TELEVISION ELECTRONICS
  - TECHNICAL ELECTRONICS
  - VICP
  - WELDING
  - WORK EXPERIENCE
- AGRICULTURE
  - AGRICULTURE
  - CONSERVATION AND FORESTRY
  - FARM MECHANIZATION
  - FARM PRODUCTION AND MANAGEMENT
  - LANDSCAPING
  - ORNAMENTAL HORTICULTURE
- HOME ECONOMICS
  - CHILD CARE
  - FOOD SERVICE
  - HEALTH SERVICE
  - HOMEMAKING
  - NURSE'S AIDE
  - PRACTICAL AIDES
- BUSINESS
  - BOOKKEEPING
  - BUSINESS EDUCATION
  - COMMERCIAL
  - DISTRIBUTION
  - DISTRIBUTIVE EDUCATION
  - OFFICE PRACTICE
  - PROGRAMED WIRING
  - SECRETARIAL PRACTICE

E-1 ADULT EDUCATION

(F) GIFTED ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS
- ADVANCED ENGLISH
- ADVANCED PLACEMENT
- ARTICULATION SEMINAR
- COLLEGE SEMINARS
- CULTURAL PROGRAMS
- ENRICHMENT
- PERFORMING ARTS
- UNDER-ACHIEVERS

(G) MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES
- ASSISTANT NATURALIST
- CAFETERIA MANAGER
- MATH
- REMEDIAL ENGLISH
- SCHOOL LUNCH SUPERVISOR
- SCIENCE
- STUDY SKILLS
- SWIM PROGRAM-BEGINNERS
- BUS DRIVER TRAINING

*These titles appear on the various applications submitted to the Boards of Cooperative Education Services. They have been consolidated and appear on the summary in Figure 2 of this chapter under these respective categories.

ATTACHMENT B

MATRIX CLASSIFICATION FOR COLLATIVE DATA ON PERSONNEL OF EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

I GENERAL OR AGENCY-WIDE ADMINISTRATION AND SPECIALISTS

Executive Director (Superintendent)
Deputy Associate or Assistant
Program Developer
Planner/Redesigner
Communicator
PR, Publication & Dissemination
Data Processing (Chief)
Evaluator
Research
Inservice Director
Liaison (Lobbyist)
Personnel Services
Operations Analyst
Special Projects (Fed. & State)

II DIRECTOR, COORDINATOR, CONSULTANT SUPERVISOR

Media
Adult Education
Curriculum
Instruction (Independent Study)
Distributive Ed.
Guidance (Psychometry)
Driver Ed.
Language Arts
Library Services
Special Ed. (Mental & Physical)
Special Programs (i.e. Urban Ed, Black Studies)
Vocational Ed.
Elementary Ed.
Secondary Ed.
Speech (Audiologist)
Reading
Math
Science
Fine Arts
Social Studies
Psychology
Youth Leadership
Civil Rights
Humanities

III SUBJECT SPECIALISTS AND/OR ITINERANT TEACHERS

Art
Music
Business
Drivers Ed.
Elementary
Language Arts
English
Home Economics
Indust. Arts; Occupational Ed.
Math
Physical Ed.
Pre-School
Adult Ed.
Reading
Speech (Therapy)
Special Ed. (Mental & Physical)
Librarian
Social Studies

ATTACHMENT B (cont'd)

IV SUPPORTIVE STAFF

A. PROFESSIONAL

- Adm. Asst.
- Business/Purchasing
- Certification
- Attendance
- Juvenile Services
- Medical Health
- Mental Health
- Social Work
- Psychologists
- Transportation
- Food Service
- Intern/Grad. Asst.

B. CERTIFIED OR NON-PROFESSIONAL

- Teaching Aides
- Secretarial/Clerical
- Media Technicians
- Computer Technicians

V CONSULTANTS AND OTHER (Short-term Assistance)

ATTACHMENT C

EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES USED FOR IN-DEPTH ANALYSES OF PERSONNEL ROLES AND NEEDS IN REGIONAL EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

VOLUNTARY EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

Educational Research & Development Councils - Southwest (Minnesota)
Educational Research & Development Councils - Northeast (Minnesota)
Educational Research & Development Councils - Northwest (Minnesota)
Educational Research & Development Councils - Central (Minnesota)
Educational Research & Development Councils - Twin Cities and Metropolitan Area
Regional Instructional Materials Center (Penn.)
Regional Cooperative Data Center (Penn.)
Educational Development Center (Penn.)
Kentucky Field Activity Cooperative (Kentucky)
School Progress Reaches Each District (Conn.)
Regional Schools Service Center (Conn.)
Tennessee Appalachia Educational Cooperative (Tenn.)
Clinch-Powell Educational Cooperative (Tenn.)
Little Tennessee Valley Educational Cooperative (Tenn.)
Sequatchie Valley (Tenn.)
DILENOWISCO (Virginia)
Suburban School Districts of St. Louis Area (Missouri)
Area Cooperative Education Services (Conn.)

MULTI-COUNTY INTERMEDIATE UNITS (Regional)

Regional Education Service Centers (Texas - Statewide)
Board of Cooperative Educational Services (New York - Statewide)
Supervisory District #1 -- Erie County
Oregon Total Information System (Oregon)
Cooperative Educational Service Agencies (Wisconsin - Statewide)
Cedar Rapids Joint County School System--Cedar, Johnson, Linn & Washington Counties (Iowa)
Nebraska Educational Service Unit #12 (Neb.)

INTERMEDIATE UNITS (Single-County; Multi-District)

Bucks County Public Schools (Pennsylvania)
Oakland County Service Center (Michigan)
Santa Clara County Office of Education (Calif.)
Dade County Media Center (Fla.) Not intermediate

SCHOOL INDUSTRY

Educational Research Council of America (Cleveland, Ohio)
Metropolitan Council for Educational Opportunity (Mass.)

Institute for Educational Research (Illinois)
Greater Wilmington Development Council (Delaware)

SCHOOL STUDY COUNCILS

Fifty-one Councils that responded to the study instrument as reported in Danenburg, *Characteristics of School Study and Development Councils in the United States*. Responses obtained in 1969-70.

CHAPTER VIII

CENTRAL FACILITIES FOR EDUCATIONAL COOPERATIVES

I. INTRODUCTION

Most of the central facilities of educational cooperatives are located in buildings designed for other purposes. Yet, the central facilities needed by complex educational cooperatives may require the most unique of designs because of the multi-varied activities that may be conducted there. Only in those instances where a state mandated intermediate service agency, such as the county intermediate school unit or the New York BOCES, have new facilities been especially constructed to house the services to be provided.

There are perhaps two reasons for the lack of especially designed facilities. One, the multi-purpose educational cooperative of a non-mandated nature is just beyond its genesis stage. Second, in many instances the nature, sources, and legalities of funding the cooperative are such that capital expenditures are limited to equipment, and then often only on a rental or lease basis unless the contributing agency (one of the local school districts, for example) retains title. The vagaries of the financial support systems of educational cooperatives thus inhibit the building of appropriately designed central facilities.

Largely then, educational cooperatives are housed in renovated buildings--former factories, abandoned schoolhouses, office buildings, for example. As certain legal restrictions are modified and funding is placed on a stable and continuous basis this can be expected to change. When this occurs much care must be directed to designing buildings which not only efficiently house the existing program but which are flexible to meet the demands of future program developments.

II. EXEMPLARY EXISTING CENTRAL FACILITIES

Little research has been conducted about the nature and need for central facilities to serve educational cooperatives. Only two such studies have been completed, both by Hughes in 1968. (1;2) These studies reveal some rather unique approaches to the problem of housing multi-purpose cooperatives, mostly in renovated structures. The following brief narratives about several cooperatives will illustrate the trends, needs, and, at times, creative solutions to problems of housing which are evidenced in different kinds of cooperatives. The case study narratives also point out the varied nature of the services rendered, the varied organizational frameworks, and the implications these have for the design of central facilities.

Education Development Center, Newton, Massachusetts.

The Education Development Center (EDC) was incorporated in Newton, Massachusetts in January 1967, with the merger of the Institute for Educational Innovation (IEI) and Educational Services Incorporated (ESI). It is non-profit and works closely with schools and colleges in New England and the rest of the nation. EDC operates the New England regional educational laboratory as well as devoting attention to specific programs of curriculum development and reform.

The EDC can only loosely be defined as an "educational cooperative." The prime purposes are those of research, development, production, and the dissemination of innovations and reform in instructional and curricular processes and materials.

Three aspects of the Educational Development Center operation are of direct relevance to educational cooperative central facilities. A most complex television operation is maintained. While no direct televising is carried out, the studio arrangement and service areas have pertinence to the development of any central facility which will have, as an aspect of its operation, educational television, and/or video taping.

The second aspect is the development of a mobile educational laboratory with capability of diverse functions. The laboratory will be used for inservice training, cultural exhibits, a variety of instructional programs.

Third, is that an inservice training program is conducted by EDC. Change in teaching techniques begins to emerge when teachers have the opportunity to help develop their own curriculum and instructional materials. Thus, a cooperative with a strong inservice thrust should probably have a central facility which includes classrooms, seminar rooms, and a curriculum laboratory.

Rural Supplementary Educational Center, Stamford, New York

The Rural Supplementary Educational Center began operation in Stamford, New York, in April, 1965. This Center comprises Delaware, Greene, and Schoharie Counties of the Third Supervisory District and is supervised by the Board of Cooperative Educational Services. It lies at the northwest gateway to the Catskill Mountains and is considered to be a part of Appalachia.

The Rural Supplementary Educational Center is one of forty-one shared educational services which are provided cooperatively to the schools through the Board of Cooperative Educational Services. The primary purpose of the Center is to assist schools and communities with means of expanding and refining educational programs through instantaneous offerings of resources of knowledge. Both students and teachers may avail themselves of such information through a multi-media system of communication especially geared to the needs of the rural area.

School aides are placed at each school site to organize and coordinate major work activities of the Center. Ten prefabricated elementary classrooms are on each site with the intended purpose of housing a regular class to free interior space within the school structure. This area contains audio-visual materials and equipment which is accessible to the student body with a minimum of inconvenience.

The central facility is housed in a remodeled resort hotel which contains multi-use spaces that are treated with carpeting, acoustical tile, and fluorescent lighting. These spaces are used for visitor reception areas, art exhibits, conferences, teacher workshops, audio-tape and video-tape presentations. A mobile unit is used to deliver materials and equipment to each school at least twice weekly and is garaged at the central facility.

Additional services provided by the Center include video-tape recorders housed in the core-unit which relays programs from four ETV stations to homes and schools in the area. Tele-learning equipment is provided which enables students and teachers to utilize resource persons anywhere in the United States or foreign countries.

The provision of each of these services has obvious implications to the nature of the central facility. Implied especially is much flexibility in interior spaces, and adequate sound treatment.

The Educational Media Center, Auburn, Alabama.

The Educational Media Center, located in Auburn, Alabama, was formed in January, 1967, and represents fourteen school districts in seven counties. Its major purpose is to provide inservice training programs for the teachers of the member schools with special emphasis on educational media.

The Educational Media Center is located in the basement of the College of Education building at Auburn University. The space consists of three areas: (1) a converted classroom for office space, (2) an old classroom which has been refurnished as a media demonstration center, and (3) a third room equipped as an instructional materials center for a school system. These materials are professional materials to be used by the pre-service or in-service training programs of the Center. In the fall of 1969 the EMC moved into more adequate space in the new College of Education building at Auburn University. Space in the College's instructional materials center is provided for the project and includes space for study carrels, small audio-visual repository, and TV studio. The schematic for the new facility did not appear to be particularly unique or unusual in design.

The features of this Educational Media Center are in the flexibility of design and strength of the in-service training programs, rather than in the existence of a unique facility. The conversion of existing facilities for the needs and purposes of the Educational Media Center have been adequate in design although a major draw-back is lack of adequate space.

The Intermediate Unit of School Administration Area XI, Des Moines, Iowa.

The Intermediate Unit School Administration began originally as the basic area for the vocational-technical development district in Iowa and has expanded into a multi-phase project. Its primary objective is to lend assistance to school districts in enabling them to meet the educational needs of the students to be educated. Area XI serves a nine county area which houses 120,000 students in grades K-12, plus some adult educational groups. This geographic area serves as the basic unit for distribution of Title II, ESEA funds in Iowa.

Special functions of Area XI include: (1) Television programming with many innovative educational provisions, (2) a repository for audio-visual materials, and (3) a computer complex supported by funds from Title III, County and NDEA.

The multi-storied building which houses the unit was used previously as a federal social security center. No estimate could be obtained of remodeling and conversion costs. The unit houses the Polk County Administration complex, vocational-technical school and the programs aforementioned.

Board of Cooperative Educational Services, Erie County, New York.

This center provides regional service in four areas to twenty school districts around Buffalo, New York. These areas are vocational education, special education, curriculum development, and data processing.

A converted building, with some new construction, serves as the central facility. The Harkness Center has approximately 40,000 square feet of which 20,000 were constructed within the last four years. The Potter Road facility is similar in square feet. The combined cost of both facilities was 3.5 million dollars, and the buildings are multiple story and concrete block in basic construction.

Oakland County Service Center, Pontiac, Michigan.

The Oakland Schools County Service Center, located in Pontiac, Michigan, began functioning in 1949. This intermediate unit services twenty-eight school districts in urban/suburban Oakland County with enrollments ranging from 1,400 to 24,000.

This Center is designed to provide: (1) a complete computer-associated administration program for districts served, (2) a closed circuit television system for use within the central facility and for the production of video tapes which may be used by local schools, and (3) a telephonic communication system with a conference call network for the use of teachers of homebound children.

An extensive in-service training program is operated and a reading repository exists for purposes of housing professional materials. In addition to this, major consultative services of a clinical nature operate out of the central facility.

The new central facility provides a professional library of printed and audio-visual materials to be distributed to all 28 schools in the district. Consideration is being given to totally computerize this central facility professional library so that typewriter terminals in each school building within the system can, using an available code listed in each school, obtain printouts of all card catalog information in summary form within the local school. This information can then, in turn, upon selection be used to call the information out to the school which will be delivered by parcel post. This particular program has exciting possibilities for centralized storage and distribution of library materials in educational cooperatives serving remote areas.

Intermediate Educational Service Center, San Diego County, California

The Intermediate Educational Service Center, located in San Diego, California, serves fifty-one school districts ranging from highly urbanized and suburban areas to those located in sparsely settled mountain areas.

This Intermediate Unit functions between the California State Department of Education and the local school systems. It provides leadership and direction to all school districts by coordinating both area and statewide activities engaged in by colleges, universities, research centers, and various other public agencies.

Support of most of the services of the intermediate unit is voluntary and on a contractual basis. Such services include the audio-visual materials center, library, data processing, EMR class operation, and mobile industrial arts.

The Intermediate Service Center completed in 1961 is housed in a campus style complex composed of five rectilinear structures that include physical spaces for staff, auditorium school and professional libraries, audio-visual repositories, conference rooms, printing shops, photo labs, data processing center, and service facilities such as a lunch room, garage, and shipping dock. The facility also houses a service area for the mobile industrial arts units.

Instructional Television Center, Miami, Florida

The Instructional Television Center, located in Miami, Florida began operation in 1958 and serves all public schools in Dade County. Some private and parochial schools also have contractual arrangements with the Dade County Board of Education.

The primary objective of the Center is threefold: (1) to facilitate learning by stimulating student interest and exploration, (2) to coordinate television presentations with relative learning activities, and (3) to save on classroom construction by employing television to teach large classes.

The Board of Public Instruction has invested a total of $1,317,255 in land, a transmitter building, tower, and broadcasting equipment. The transmitter building and tower for the open-circuit stations are located in Broward County. The transmitting tower for the 2,500 Mc system is located at Cutler Ridge Junior High School.

The Television Center is located on the second floor of the Lindsey Hopkins Building which houses the central offices of the Dade County Board of Public Instruction. The Television Center has two complete studios, 45 feet by 35 feet by 25 feet high, each with standard professional equipment including four image orthicon Marconi cameras; two light control panels with dimmers for 60,000 watts each, rear screen projection equipment; and special effects amplifiers. Control rooms contain video switching consoles, five broadcast video-tape recorders, four film chains, four 16 mm projectors and testing equipment.

The materials room houses over 2,800 telelessons, a file of more than 40,000 illustrations and photographs, more than 150 audiotapes, and 4,230 disc recordings. A fully equipped photographic laboratory with sound-on-film cameras and accompanying equipment is used for local productions. A storage room, 56 feet x 17 feet, is used to store props.

III. SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS

Planners of central facilities should be fully cognizant of all necessary provisions in developing educational specifications. The span of activity which takes place in such facilities will vary according to need, location, financial status, as well as other criteria. Clearly much use of the open space concept of design would provide maximum flexibility. Too, small work areas with desks, carrels, etc., are needed to provide spaces for consultants and specialists to prepare materials. Large spaces are needed for demonstrations and meetings.

One major function of the central facility may be the provision of mobile educational laboratories. These units can embrace industrial arts, home economics, reading repositories, cultural exhibits, teaching materials, and a variety of other instructional programs. Each of these can be adequately housed, equipped, and staffed by central facility personnel.

Another significant function of the central facility seems to be pertinent in-service training programs. Special housing needs implicit in this function are a library resources area, small and large group meeting areas, and perhaps a model classroom for demonstration teaching. If the region to be served is widely scattered attention may also need to be given to the construction of living quarters.

Central facilities can house repositories of audio-visuals including ETV, closed circuit TV, and video taping. Additional space should be available for data processing and computer equipment, tele-learning centers, telephonic conferences call systems, and photographic dark-room operations.

In many cases central facilities consist of converted classrooms or storage and warehouse spaces. Needed areas included conference rooms, instructional materials center, little theatre, storage, shipping dock, and a garage to house mobile laboratories. Adequate dining areas for large and small groups should also be provided. The environment of all spaces should be carefully planned with the inclusion of the best quality of visual, acoustical, and thermal furnishings. Furniture and equipment should be selected according to the task to be performed with emphasis on durability and flexibility.

Central facilities must provide adequate spaces for full-time specialists, including reading consultants, therapists, psychologists, home bound and EMR personnel, as well as many temporary and part-time consultants.

REFERENCES

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2. ________, Central Facilities Needs for Educational Cooperatives in Southern Appalachia--Three Case Studies (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Contract #OEC-3-7-062909-3070, November, 1968). (Available through ERIC)

CHAPTER IX

SUMMARY, TRENDS, AND MAJOR CONCLUSIONS

This chapter provides the major findings of the study and a discussion of the trends and interpretations of the findings. Many of the statements in this chapter are excerpted from the body of the study and details of these can be found in the study itself.

1. More and more school districts in the United States are joining in various kinds of cooperative arrangements. These cooperative ventures provide a locus for such activities as program development, planning, state and federal project development and implementation, and for working with community groups. The cooperative also provides a single location for foundations and other organizations to work directly with a number of school districts.

2. Where less formal cooperative endeavors such as participation in school study councils, or personnel sharing, has occurred, formal arrangements seem to develop faster and to be stronger and more effective.

3. Federal legislation has provided some impetus for cooperation. Title III, ESEA, funds particularly have been used for the development of planning regions on a state-wide basis (e.g.: Kentucky and Texas).

4. Some states that have had formal intermediate units or other kinds of educational cooperatives on an informal basis are now redistricting, restructuring or studying the same, and some expanded regional networks with specific purposes are appearing (e.g.: Minnesota and New York).

5. There is a trend for the development of regional agencies not to follow county boundaries or be coterminous with other political boundaries but to be designed on the basis of travel distance, socioeconomic similarities, and numbers of pupils which can be most effectively and efficiently served.

6. New professional and organizational roles are appearing and the cooperatives seem to be the location for the development of new personnel types. There is demand for persons with planning skills, as well as for utilization of specialists in program development and in technology. "Educational Communicator" is another identified emerging role.

7. Some states and local districts are establishing cooperatives which, in effect, are creations of and controlled by the local districts; that is, the cooperative is formed under the control of the local agency and not as a part of the hierarchy between the local and the state level.

8. The move toward cooperation appears to have been a function of or an assistance to small and rural districts striving to gain the equality of educational opportunity afforded the pupils in large suburban or urban school districts. New and expanded services have been provided through the vehicle of cooperation. However, the decentralization of urban school systems leaves the previous central administration unit with many of the functions of regional cooperative educational agencies.

9. There has been dramatic increase in the growth of school study councils. The year 1969-70 saw the most number of school study councils formed since the initiation of the movement in 1942.

10. Regional education agencies are increasing their effectiveness by combining their planning and coordination capabilities and coordinating these with other state regional areas developed for such things as health planning, vocational education districts, and community college districts. In some cases, the regional education agency boundaries are paralleling these other planning or regional groups. The rapid growth of councils of governments or elected officials, regional planning commissions and economic development districts in the 1960's has greatly influenced regionalism in education.

11. There are two major roles and/or functions of regional education agencies. These agencies are primarily (1) a service agency for local schools providing services to pupils and teachers and (2) agencies which strive to improve the administrative organization, structure, and operation of school districts within a predetermined area.

12. Although much is said in the literature about the cost effectiveness or economic efficiency of cooperatives or regional agencies, there are few hard data on cost effectiveness or on evaluation of cooperative programs or the agencies themselves. This may be true because many cooperative programs are expansions or "add-ons" or improvements of the current program and local districts are reluctant to replace or redirect ongoing programs with newer programs. Thus, certain economies and efficiencies cannot be ascertained. There is another artifact in the discussion of economy. By joining in cooperatives, local districts can obtain programs which they previously did not have. This is an expansion of services and does not reflect a reduction in the operating budget since there are more services. Thus, local districts can take advantage of new programs, but they do not show a hard cash dollar saving. The cooperative allows them to expand in areas where they previously would be unable to provide services.

13. The large personnel demands of regional education agencies suggest that institutions of higher education should be cognizant of the need and be providing additional educational experiences and training activities to prepare personnel for the specific roles in the educational cooperatives. (This is highlighted by the fact that Texas had to look outside the area of higher education to train their planners.)

14. Many of the educational cooperatives that are not formal (i.e., state mandated) organizations have not publicized much about their activities. Probably there is much cooperation going on which is not of a formal nature.

15. The apparent impetus for much cooperation is at the grass roots level. Once informal cooperation becomes a "habit", formal cooperation is facilitated in a region. Indeed, even in New York State, which was the first to form the "new intermediate unit" with its Boards of Cooperative Educational Services, there were numerous school study councils in operation since the early 1940's which gave impetus to statewide regionalism.

16. Legislation which permits or requires regionalism shows some interesting patterns or trends. More recent legislation provides for the participation of the cooperative's employees in state retirement plans, but is silent on the question of tenure in the positions in the cooperative. Recent legislation provides some state baseline support for the regional agencies and in some cases, incentives are built into the formula for support of programs in the cooperatives. Recent legislation is also more permissive in allowing various programs and in allowing authority for taxing if there is a local referendum in favor of it. On the other hand, some recent laws require a review and/or evaluation of the cooperative and the cooperative programs on a periodic basis. In some cases, legislation mandating educational regionalism indicates that the regional agency is to become an arm of the state education agency or specifies tasks which the agency is supposed to perform.

17. Cooperatives which do not receive state baseline funding or are not given provisions for state matching funds find it difficult to operate in many instances; a major continuing concern, then, is the location of financing for operation. Various organizational strategies and program development techniques have been forwarded to find the funds for operation of these cooperatives.

18. Educational cooperatives allow the schools to respond more rapidly to social demands. Marginal or socially relevant programs can be experimented with more easily in the cooperative. "High risk" ventures are spread over several school districts, and there is less criticism if the program does not prove to be effective during the first few years of operation. School study councils probably initiated this approach as school administrators strove to find ways to legitimately experiment in the development of educational programs before research and development were legitimate functions in education.

CONCLUSION

There is an obvious trend toward cooperation and regionalism in education. While the 1940's through the 1960's can be thought of as a period in American education when there was a great emphasis on consolidation, and the late 1960's will be remembered as a period in American education when large school districts attempted decentralization in order to make massive school districts more responsive to segments of the local population, it is probable that the 1970's will be remembered as the time for the expansion of the cooperative idea. The educational cooperative or regional agency provides much of the flexibility and service capability of large districts while allowing for local control and direction of the individual districts or schools.